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As the Editor Sees it

As a new school year opens, many thousand young men and women will be starting their first year as teachers. They will find themselves for the first time on a payroll as public employees, in full charge of a considerable number of youngsters who are eager to size them up. They will cease to be college students; they will suddenly cross the line and find themselves on the other side of the desk, endowed (they nervously hope) with dignity, authority and omniscience. More than in most occupations they will have the same duties and responsibilities as other teachers who have had years of experience. They cannot be broken in gradually; they must leap in and carry their full share of the load from the very beginning. It is a sobering and often a nerve-wracking ordeal.

It is true that the new teacher today starts his work under much better conditions than existed a quarter century ago. He at least has had training in the theory of education and several months actual teaching experience under expert supervision. The writer well remembers his own first teaching job, which he undertook without the benefit of any course in education or of a single day's experience in a classroom. Yet even today the young teacher entering on his first employment has much to learn and little time in which to learn it.

One of the first and most crucial areas of learning for the new teacher is that of his relationships with the youngsters in his charge. So recently he was himself one of them, and now he must suddenly become an adult. One of the most common grounds for disappointment and discouragement for a young teacher is the rude awakening to the fact that his classes are not composed of geniuses. Almost invariably he expects more from them at the start than they are ready or able to give; he may easily be dismayed when results are not up to the standard he had thought he would get. Then too there is the problem of his personal rela-

tions with pupils. Human nature being what it is, pupils are likely to obtain a lasting judgment of a new teacher by his attitude and actions during the first few days, when he is most uncertain of how to act. Probably the best advice that one can give the beginning teacher here is to start out quietly, pleasantly, and in a firm and business-like manner, avoiding any extremes of severity or *camaraderie* which might later have to be amended. The appearance of complete self-confidence (no matter how ill-founded) is the greatest single asset of the young teacher facing his first classes.

The neophyte teacher must also consider the initial impression he makes on those with whom he works,—the rest of the staff, the office force, the administration. He must try to be friendly but not cocky, enthusiastic but not revolutionary. He must remember that a school, like any long-established institution, operates to a great degree through a fixed routine and tradition, and that what may appear to him as endless red tape is usually procedure which will actually prevent chaos and confusion. He must learn the spirit and character of his new environment by listening to his older colleagues and saying little until his feet are solidly on the ground. Above all, he must remember that a school is not a series of cells in which each teacher conducts his work independently of the rest; teaching is essentially a cooperative process, in which the real education of the child comes from the combined influence of all the faculty working on him as a unit.

Yes, a good many young people will be undergoing some trying days in our schools this fall. Yet we may be sure that from them will come many fine teachers who will become a bulwark of education for many years. We can but hope that those who have gone that way before will seek them out and help them and encourage them, for it is a great responsibility to become a teacher.

L. B. I.

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Indo-China: Storm Center of Southeast Asia

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Many people in the United States are disturbed because they believe that France is not shouldering its share of the load in the struggle against communism. There are loud and frequent complaints in Atlanta, Detroit, San Francisco, and many American cities because there are so few French soldiers in the United Nations' army in Korea. Indeed, some Americans have asserted that the French can't be counted upon to fight against communism in Korea, in Europe, or anywhere else in the world. To such assertions, there is but one answer: the French are fighting now in Indo-China, and they are fighting very hard and skillfully against a determined and ruthless enemy who has been at war with them since December, 1946.

The war in Indo-China has not received much attention from the press in the United States. Indeed, it is likely that there are many people in the United States who don't know just where Indo-China is or why the French should be fighting there at all. However, people in Detroit and San Francisco should know where Indo-China is because they have a very real stake in that country—about \$400,000,000 worth—in terms of military and economic aid which has been sent and is being sent from the United States to the French and their native allies in Viet Nam. Perhaps it should be explained at this point that Viet Nam is the largest and most populous of the states of Indo-China. Until recently, Indo-China (i.e., French Indo-China) was a colonial dependency of France. The country was ruled by French administrators and by natives who were educated, appointed to office, and supervised by

the French. Today, Indo-China is divided into three semi-independent states: Viet Nam, Laos, and Cambodia. Each of the three states is one of the associated states of the French Union; each state has a government and an army of its own, but the over-all control of customs, postal services, and military matters still rests primarily in the hands of French officials. The total area of Indo-China is almost 285,000 square miles, or about the size of Texas and Pennsylvania combined. The population is in the neighborhood of 26,000,000; of the 26,000,000 Indo-Chinese, about 19,000,000 live in Viet Nam. A vast number of the people of Viet Nam live in the low-lying rice-fields in the valley of the Red River in Tongking or in the vicinity of the city of Saigon which is located some six hundred miles south of the Red River delta.

Indo-China is a producer of rice, rubber, tin, and hardwoods. It has been a valuable colony for the French, and until recently, it has been a fairly peaceful one. However, sudden death has replaced docility as the order of the day in Indo-China; perhaps almost as much blood has been shed in Indo-China since 1946 as has yet been shed on the battlefields of Korea. Indo-China is and for some time has been one of the principal battle areas in the world, and there is every indication that the fighting there will be carried out in 1952 on a larger scale than ever before.

The tranquillity of Indo-China was disturbed some years ago when Japanese soldiers and marines invaded the country. The Japanese forced the Vichy-appointed French officials to collaborate with them and in 1945, when it

became evident to the Japanese that there was a well-organized "underground" working against them, the French were thrown into concentration camps or were put to death. At the time of the formal Japanese surrender, no French troops were available to occupy Indo-China; under the circumstances, British troops occupied Saigon and the southern regions of Indo-China while Chinese troops occupied northern Indo-China including the big city of Hanoi in the Red River delta. The French and Eurasians who had survived the ordeal of life in Japanese concentration camps were liberated, but they had had no chance to reorganize the civil administration of Indo-China before word reached them that the Annamite independence party of Tongking was forming a government under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh. Ho, a member of the Communist Party who had received part of his education in France, was the leader of formidable revolutionary forces which were armed with weapons which had been grounded by the Japanese army of occupation. The French had no military forces with which to deal with Ho, so they had no choice but to negotiate with him. Negotiations dragged on for many months, but in December, 1946, open warfare commenced with an attack by Ho's Viet Minh (independence party) followers upon French troops and police in Hanoi.

The abortive negotiations between Ho Chi Minh and the French Government were long and tortuous. It is probable that there was no chance that they would succeed, no chance that Ho Chi Minh would permit them to succeed. However that may be, the French and the Annamite independence committee soon found themselves poles apart on their ideas about a new government for Indo-China. President Charles de Gaulle indicated before the end of 1945 and again in 1946 that his government was willing to grant a considerable degree of autonomy to Indo-China. However, Ho Chi Minh and his followers wanted more than autonomy; they really wanted recognition of an independent government which was to be headed by them. Moreover, Ho and his followers claimed the right to speak for *all* of Indo-China, but the French held that Cambodia and Laos were separate states which had long-established governments of their own.

The French and Viet Minh viewpoints seemed to be hopelessly far apart, and the negotiations, which were carried on at Fontainebleau, dragged on through the summer and fall of 1946 without a satisfactory settlement being worked out. Meanwhile, French troops had been sent to Indo-China and the French and Viet Minh forces regarded each other with growing suspicion and hostility. Perhaps it didn't really matter who fired the first shots, but at all events the first major attack made by either side was made by the Viet Minh against the French in Hanoi. The fighting which commenced upon that occasion has continued unceasingly from December, 1946, to the present moment.

There has been some misunderstanding in various quarters about the nature of the Viet Minh uprising. The leaders of the uprising are members of the Communist Party, but most of the rank and file of the resistance movement are not communists. The movement is primarily a fight for independence, a fight to expel the French from Indo-China. Ho Chi Minh and other Viet Minh leaders have talked very little, so far, about communism; instead, they have based their appeal to their followers very largely upon promises to expel the French and their Annamite allies from Indo-China. They have also made promises to take farm land from the present landlords and to parcel it out among the peasants in small plots. So long as they are engaged in fighting against the French, it is probable that they will continue to appeal for popular support among non-communists as well as among members of the Communist Party. However, it is to be emphasized that Ho Chi Minh is an orthodox communist, and there is every reason to believe that he would enforce communist policies and practices if and when the French are expelled from Indo-China. Ho Chi Minh's rebel government is recognized by the foreign offices of Moscow and Peiping as being the legal government of Indo-China, and Ho's army has received and is still receiving extensive military aid from Red China.

The problem facing the French authorities in Indo-China, since 1946, has been partly one of pacification by military means, and partly a matter of seeking a satisfactory political solution which would make further use of mil-

itary means unnecessary. As part of a hoped-for political solution, the French have asked Bao Dai, a member of Indo-Chinese royalty, to become emperor of Viet Nam. By 1948, Bao Dai had formed a government at Saigon. Unfortunately, Bao Dai's new government does not seem to have wide support among the people of Viet Nam. Bao Dai, a notorious play-boy who is now in his late thirties, is hardly an inspiring figure. He is disliked by the French because he collaborated with Vichy authorities during World War II and he is disliked by French and Annamites alike because he collaborated with the Japanese for several years. Moreover, Bao Dai recently spent four months enjoying the pleasures of the French Riviera while his own followers and his own government were engaged in a desperate war with the underground resistance forces of the Viet Minh. Finally, upon his return from France, Bao Dai did not even visit his capital of Saigon but journeyed at once to his favorite palace at the hunting resort of Dalat.

Whether the government of Viet Nam, which at least has some able men in it, will ever be able to gain popular support is at best doubtful. At all events, it is clear that the struggling new government would collapse quickly if it should lose the support of the French military forces which are now stationed in Indo-China. Viet Nam has an army of its own, but the main job of pacification in Indo-China has fallen squarely upon the shoulders of the French. Until recently, the French had 150,000 to 160,000 troops stationed in Indo-China, but reinforcements have been sent to the area since the victories of the Viet Minh forces in September and October, 1950. The exact number of French troops in Indo-China today is a military secret, but it is probable that there are 180,000 of them, plus perhaps 150,000 native troops raised by the Viet Nam government.

The struggle against Ho Chi Minh's resistance forces has been a difficult and costly one. The French have had very little opportunity to throw troops, tanks, and planes into pitched battle against an enemy whom they can see. Instead, the French have had to scatter their military resources in terms of a battalion here, a battalion there, a small fortified outpost at one point, and a similar outpost at another, with roving mobile patrols operating between

the various garrison posts. The enemy has used hit-and-run tactics of a kind which are most difficult to combat. Sometimes, a mortar or machine gun hidden in a swamp near Saigon will open fire upon shipping in the harbor. When soldiers advance into the swamp to mop up the enemy pocket, they find that the enemy has fled. On some other occasions, a mild-looking civilian in Saigon or Hanoi suddenly throws a hand grenade into a theatre or fires several pistol shots at a Viet Nameese policeman. The grenade-thrower usually escapes into a back street or into a crowd of natives before anyone has a chance to shoot him or arrest him. Indeed, every French or Viet Nam official is in constant danger in Saigon or wherever he may be stationed in Indo-China. Several leading officials of the French police forces in Viet Nam have been assassinated in broad daylight on the main streets of Saigon and Hanoi!

In addition to its assassins in Saigon and other cities, Viet Minh has guerrilla units in operation in the mountains, jungles, and swamps of the Viet Nameese countryside. Armed bands of 200 or 300 men, and sometimes forces of 2000 or 3000 men, have made attacks upon French patrols, supply columns, outposts, and fortified garrison posts. The Viet Minh guerrillas have been able to control most of the countryside at night, and their daylight operations have been carried out in such strength that some French outposts have had to be supplied exclusively by air for weeks at a time. All told, in fighting which has lasted for a period of years, the French have lost about 20,000 soldiers killed, died of wounds, captured, or missing. In addition, many French soldiers have been wounded and many more have suffered from malaria and from other diseases which make life difficult and dangerous for Europeans who must campaign in Indo-Chinese rice-paddies, swamps, and jungles. The war-budget for Indo-China has been a most serious drain upon the French treasury; to date, the war has cost France nearly \$2,500,000,000. At present, military operations in Indo-China are costing France more than \$500,000,000 per year. Additional sums are being spent by taxpayers of the United States to supply military aid to French and Viet Nameese forces in the form of bombers, fighter-bombers, artillery,

ammunition, landing craft for amphibious operations, and cargo planes for the carrying out of airborne operations.

The drain upon the French treasury is one of the most serious aspects of the war in Indo-China, but the most serious aspect of that war is the drain upon French military strength in Europe. Equipment which is sorely needed by French units in Germany is being sent to Indo-China. Experienced officers and non-commissioned officers, who are badly needed to train France's new conscript army, are being sent to Indo-China; many of these men have become casualties and will be forever unavailable for the defense of the Rhine. The best troops in the French army—the professional soldiers of the Foreign Legion—are heavily committed to the fighting in Indo-China. If the Foreign Legionnaires, Moroccan, and Senegalese troops who are now stationed in Indo-China could be added to General Dwight Eisenhower's forces in Europe, they would represent a reinforcement of about eight divisions, plus supporting units, and a powerful tactical air force!

Unfortunately, however, the French forces in Indo-China are not only unavailable for service in Europe, but they have recently had to be reinforced by French forces from Europe, North Africa, and Madagascar. The reinforcements were required because of a sudden, terrifying deterioration of the military situation in northern Viet Nam in September and October, 1950. French border forts, which guarded the mountain passes which connect China and Viet Nam, were suddenly overwhelmed by Chinese-trained Viet Minh forces which were armed with artillery, heavy mortars, and modern communications equipment. The French were forced to evacuate half a dozen forts in a few weeks' time. The evacuation of the scattered garrisons did not go smoothly; a retreating garrison and its covering relief column were trapped and virtually annihilated by 20,000 or more Viet Minh troops in a battle fought in mountainous countryside somewhere between the border forts of Cao bang and Thatkhe. French military spokesmen admitted the loss of considerable quantities of equipment and of 3,500 Foreign Legionnaires and Moroccan troops who were killed, wounded, or missing. The disaster occurred early in Oc-

tober, 1950, but the American public hardly noticed it because the headlines of our newspapers were filled at the time with news of United Nations' victories in North Korea.

The Caobang disaster opened a new phase of the war in Indo-China. It was the beginning of major military operations on the part of the Communist-led Viet Minh forces. Henceforth, guerrilla operations were to continue as in the past, but in addition to guerrilla units there was a Viet Minh army in the field—an army which possessed artillery, armored cars, and other modern fighting equipment with the exception of airplanes. The appearance of the Viet Minh army in the Tongking theatre of operations has forced the French to withdraw from their forts along more than two hundred and fifty miles of the Chinese border. Supply routes through five mountain passes which were formerly blocked by French border forts were opened to use by the Viet Minh forces. It is now possible for Red China to send supplies to Ho Chi Minh without interruption by French ground forces; however, the French may be able to harass the supply columns from time to time through use of air power.

Evacuation of the forts along the Viet Nam China frontier has forced the French to adopt a new strategy of defense. Formerly, their strategy was based upon the general plan of maintaining garrisons and small mobile patrols throughout the most populous areas of Viet Nam while keeping the roads to China sealed up by frontier forts. Now, the French have had to withdraw some seventy-five to one hundred miles southward from their frontier forts to the rice paddies of the Red River delta. Scattered garrisons and patrols have been drawn in toward Hanoi, and the French have concentrated enough troops, armor, artillery, and planes around that city to enable them to hold it against any force which Ho Chi Minh has yet been able to put into the field. However, the defenses of Hanoi would be gravely threatened if Chinese troops should be sent to reinforce the Viet Minh army. The defenses of Hanoi would also be threatened if the control of the air which the French now enjoy should be challenged by the appearance of Chinese fighter planes above the battlefields of Tongking.

The loss of the forts along the Chinese frontier has posed a permanent threat to the success of the efforts of the French and Viet Nameese to defend Tongking and the Red River delta from the attacks of the Viet Minh army. Some French officials have suggested that Tongking should be evacuated altogether and that a new defense line should be drawn up two or three hundred miles farther to the south, somewhere between Saigon and Hanoi. The men who have advised retreat from Hanoi believe that it will be too costly to France, in terms of casualties and in terms of the drain upon the French economy, to continue to defend Tongking. However, French military leaders who have visited Indo-China since the Caobang disaster have concluded that a retreat, once started, might have no end. The newly appointed commander-in-chief of the French and Viet Nameese forces, General Jean de Lattre de Tassigny, has announced that Hanoi will be defended and he has concentrated troops and planes for that purpose. The victors of Caobang have been quite slow in following up their initial successes, and their first appearance in real force in the vicinity of Hanoi was greeted by a vigorous and powerful counter-attack by French armored vehicles, artillery, and airplanes. It is evident that Ho Chi Minh does not yet have sufficient force to drive a determined and heavily-reinforced French army from Tongking. On the other hand, it is equally clear that

the French do not have the means to attack Ho's army in its mountain strongholds.

It is hard to foresee an end to the present war in Indo-China. The war seems to have entered a period of stalemate for the immediate future. The French have sufficient strength to hold cities like Saigon and Hanoi for some time, but they do not have troops enough to launch a major offensive against their determined but elusive enemies. The French have shown increasing willingness in recent months to give real autonomy to the government of Viet Nam, but there is little evidence to show that the majority of the people of that country are willing to rally to support Bao Dai's government. Under the circumstances, it would appear that Indo-China will continue to be a storm center of Asia for some time to come. The French and Viet Nameese armies will probably be able to hold their own against the Viet Minh forces, but it is hardly likely that they will be able to defeat and destroy an enemy who has perhaps 35,000 front-line troops, 80,000 full-time guerrillas, and several hundred thousand part-time guerrillas fighting in his ranks. The most dangerous element in the situation is, however, the possibility that Chinese troops might be committed to action in Indo-China at some future date. If that should happen, the French and Viet Nameese forces might suffer a major defeat, and there would be serious danger that the war in Indo-China would expand into a general war.

The Geopolitics of Formosa

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Although strategically always important, the issue of Formosa was suddenly brought to the attention of world strategists by the escape of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-Shek's Nationalist government there, and by the "reversed" decision in the summer of 1950 to defend with American naval forces against the planned invasion from China.

Formosa is separated from the continent of Asia by 100 miles; from the Philippines by 200 miles; and from Kyushu, the nearest of the

islands of Japan, by not many more miles. Flying distance from the military airport in Formosa is 559 miles to Manila, 410 miles to Canton, 428 miles to Shanghai, 1,290 to Tokyo. A radius of 2,000 miles takes in Burma, Singapore, Borneo, Guam, and Japan (including Hokkaido).

The island of Formosa (Taiwan) has always played an important role in the world politics of the Far East. The Middle Kingdom of China depended upon land power, and confronting,

geographically, Inner Asia, had to use Formosa as an island outpost. The importance of the island was appreciated by the empire builders of Spain and the Netherlands and later of France and Great Britain in an age of sea power; in the most recent times the Japanese used it as a stationary aircraft carrier in this age of air power. Due to its location, area, and terrain, Formosa is of outstanding significance, if not one of the most important strategic islands of the Western Pacific.

Located one hundred miles off the coast of South China, the island dominates not only the coast of China but also the sea lanes between Japan and Southeast Asia. To the north of the island lie the Ryukyus, the Philippines to the south and the wide Pacific Ocean to the east. Today, Formosa is flanked by American bases in the Philippines to the south and in Okinawa to the north.

Formosa is a highly strategic spot from the point-of-view of Communists or non-Communists. One hundred miles off the mainland, it lies athwart any sea route out of Southern China and in the path of any Communist fleet headed from Shanghai to Indo-China or Burma. It is only seven hours by bomber from Tokyo, and so near the Philippines that the Japanese used it as a base for their attacks against MacArthur on Bataan. Thus also the island fort guarding the southern approaches to Japan itself became one of the main targets of America's planes during World War II, being about 100 miles off the Chinese coast. The United States had to bomb Formosa to reduce the Japanese threat against the United States flank on the way up to Japan.

The island of Taiwan, "terraced fields" (as the Chinese call it), was named Formosa ("The Beautiful") by sixteenth century Portuguese and Spanish explorers who were struck by its scenic beauty. Situated between the southern and eastern China seas, separated from the Chinese province of Fukien by the narrow Formosa Strait, the island is an elongated oval 225 miles long, sixty to eighty miles wide. Mountains, with rugged peaks and luxuriant forests, cover two-thirds of the island; the remaining third is fertile coastal plain and is the heart of Formosa's economic life. This former hiding place of Chinese and Japanese pirates still averages around 300 earthquakes

a year. Today its 14,500 square miles is overcrowded with seven million natives and nearly a million Chinese refugees. In a hot, malarial climate, industries are being revived by the \$20 million American loan provided by ECA. But the island is mainly agricultural, with miles of paddies, tea plantations and peanut fields rising on tabled hillsides.

The general configuration of the island is that of a tiled fault block, sloping to the west from a range of two-mile-high mountains along the eastern axis. The highest peak is Niitaka, known as Mt. Morrison, 12,956 feet. Slopes on the east descend precipitously to the sea, but between the central Niitaka Range and the Pacific are the Taito lowlands and mountains. Fertile coastal plains border the western shores.

Formosa's shores are bathed by the warm Kuroshio. Except in the mountains, tropical conditions prevail; lowland temperatures never freeze and seldom approach 100° F. Especially during winter, the monsoons are a curse, and the winds bring copious precipitation, especially in the north.

Seventy per cent of Formosa is forest; mangroves border the shallow western coast. Agriculture resembles the Chinese pattern, with rice terraces, water buffaloes, pigs, two-wheeled carts, ducks, and Chinese implements. Rice is the dominant food crop and two harvests a year are common. Sweet potatoes are the main food of the poorer peasants. The most spectacular increase has been the production of sugar cane, especially in the west and north. Bananas and canned pineapple are exported to Japan; long tea, grown in the north, is sent to the United States and Great Britain. Formosa provides three-fourths of the world's natural camphor, although the synthetic substitutes have weakened Formosa's monopoly. Good coal is mined in the north; salt is evaporated on the western coast. Production of petroleum and a variety of metals is small.

Formosa has only two cities of importance. Taihoku, in the extreme north, is the capital, and is 18 miles south of its port of Keelung. Tainan is in the centre of the south. The only satisfactory harbors are at the two ends of the island.

Culturally and racially, the people are mostly Chinese. In 1943 the population estimates were

6.5 million (of which 93 per cent were Formosan Chinese, 6 per cent Japanese,¹ and 1 per cent mainland Chinese); later figures indicated that the Chinese had reached 98 per cent. There were also some 160,000 aborigines, living chiefly in the mountains. The Chinese are divided into the Fukienese (who came from the mountains of Kwangtung and Fukien), and the Cantonese.

The first Europeans to war over the control of Formosa were the Dutch who succeeded, in 1641, in expelling the Spanish in Keelung and Tamsui. In 1662 Koxinga, a redoubtable Chinese pirate and supporter of the lost cause of the Ming Dynasty against the Manchus, conquered the Dutch settlements in Formosa; the Kingdom passed on to his son and grandson, and ended when the Manchus gained the authority in 1683. This was the beginning of the Chinese rule and the use of the island as a province of China. In the fifties of the nineteenth century both Commodore Perry and Townsend Harris asked the United States to acquire a coaling station at Keelung. In 1884-1885 Formosa was blockaded by France, and Keelung occupied. The Japanese invasion of 1874 nullified the vague Chinese rule; in 1895 Japan terminated the Chinese rule at the end of the Sino-Japanese war. The Japanese used the island as a spearhead in their drive to the South Sea.

The Japanese regime, between 1895 and 1945, was a laboratory for the makers of colonial policy in Tokyo. At first the islands had to be pacified; thereafter the administration was autocratic. But law and order were maintained. The Government General was a military regime, although civilian titles were usually the rule; the family was collectively responsible for the activities of all its members. Naval bases were maintained at Keelung, Takao, and Mako, in the Pescadores; most of the airfields were located on the southwest coast (where flying conditions were best). Furthermore, Formosa served Japan as a source of foodstuffs and raw materials and as a market for manufactured goods. The general standard of living eventually reached that of the mainland Chinese. Under the Japanese, the yield of rice, the basic food, was enlarged and improved. The development of transportation was one of the great accomplishments of the

Japanese. The main railway from Keelung to Takao (running north and south) was finished in 1908 and numerous branches were later added. The construction of highways was pushed. The capital, Taihoku, became a model city. In fact, in 1904 the Japanese subsidies to the island ceased. But private enterprise was controlled by the Japanese, as well as the monopolies of opium, tobacco, camphor, alcohol, and salt. The health conditions were also drastically improved.

During World War II, the island suffered severely, but it was not invaded. The Japanese used the island as a springboard for the conquest of much of Greater East Asia. As a great military base, it was the objective of American air and submarine warfare in 1944-45. The disastrous typhoon of August, 1944, did the rest. Keelung, Takao, and Taihoku were heavily bombed.

On October 25, 1945, the Chinese Government General of Taiwan under General Chen Yi, former Governor of Fukien, took over at Taihoku (now known as Taipeh). But the economic exploitation by the new regime resulted in an unrest and revolt within six months. In May, 1947, the Taiwan Provincial Government replaced the Government General, and Formosa became one of the 35 provinces of China. When the Nationalist Government of China had to find the last refuge in Formosa, Wu Kuocheng became Governor.

At the turn of August, 1950, out of the skies over Formosa one day roared a U. S. C-54; it landed smoothly at Taipeh's airfield. From the "Bataan" stepped General Douglas MacArthur who was welcomed by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-Shek; MacArthur, accompanied by Vice-Admiral Arthur Struble, commander of the U. S. Seventh Fleet, had come to discuss the defenses of Formosa, which the U. S. is now committed to guard against Red attack. But it had taken the U. S. a long time to reach this conclusion.

In January, 1950, President Truman said: "The United States Government will not provide military aid or advice to Chinese forces on Formosa. . . . The resources on Formosa are adequate to enable them to obtain the items which they might consider necessary for the defense of the island."

Secretary of State Dean Acheson had persuaded the U. S. Joint Chiefs of Staff, against the advice of General MacArthur, that the United States should not intervene in Formosa. He advanced the remarkable argument that if the U.S.S.R. had its way in Asia, the Communists would eventually become unpopular among Asian people and the United States would gain popularity for its nice-mannered non-intervention. The Red invasion of the South in 1950 knocked such arguments into a cocked hat. The President reversed himself, announced what most military men—and plain common sense—would tell any American: Formosa in Red hands would be “a direct threat to the security of the Pacific area. . . .”

In the six months that it took for the United States to make up its mind, the Reds had built up a sizeable invasion fleet. The Red dragon began to spit fire; Communist leaders made belligerent statements about how they would liberate Formosa and crush Chiang. Then they tried to take Taitan, a small Nationalist-held island off the mainland port of Amoy. The Nationalists drove off the attack. Later, the Nationalist air force (idle for a month because of President Truman's request that the Nationalists cease operations against the Red mainland), strafed Communist forces on the Chinese coast.

United States military men believe that a Red invasion can be turned back by the United States Seventh Fleet, together with the Nationalist army of about 500,000 men who had been licked into top shape by V.M.I.-trained General Sun Li-jen. But they conceded that the Red Chinese air force of about 300 fighter bombers and 100 medium bombers might deal crippling blows to ports and industries of the island stronghold.

In the fall of 1950 the Chinese in Formosa were certain that they could defend the island and, with the hoped-for deterioration of the mainland economy and some help from anti-Communist allies, return eventually to reunite their country. They had tools to fight with. The armed forces numbered more than 750,000 men, and of these 580,000 were combat units of the ground forces. The navy had 45,000, the air force 25,000. The balance were administrative army personnel. The ground

forces had American equipment—tanks, guns, rifles, automatic weapons, vehicles, with a few Sten guns thrown in. The army was short on transportation but the coast to be defended was only 250 miles long and troops had been disposed to make the most of what trucks were available. Strong points had been built to cover every useful invasion beach. Secondary works, built by the Japanese to meet the American threat of 1945, provided defense in depth.

The principal arm of the navy was the American destroyer escort, a 1,400-ton ship equipped with three-inch guns (Nationalist China did not disclose how many it had). In addition, there were a good many river gunboats, mine-layers, minesweepers and smaller armed craft. The number of planes was considerable; since the first of 1950 maintenance and repair work had been greatly improved.

Economically, Formosa in 1950 was standing up fairly well to the burden of carrying the war effort. In 1940, it produced 600,000 tons of sugar, and exported 400,000. In 1950, thanks to irrigation and more fertilizers, it did better. In 1949, the rice crop was 1,210,000 tons, but imports were 200,000. In 1950, demand was not so great, for the Taipei did not have to feed the civilian population of the Chusan islands. The crop was estimated at 1,420,000 tons, surpassing the pre-war record.

Until the end of 1949, Nationalist China had been financed from two sources; it was spending its gold reserve at the rate of 200,000 ounces (Hongping taels worth about \$10) a month and it was using the printing press. Since he took office, on December 21, 1949, Governor K. C. Wu, a Princeton Ph.D. in government, has stopped that; he introduced taxes aimed primarily at the commercial community and the rich refugees. He floated liberty loans, and introduced a system of forced savings in small units (about 50 American cents each). Meanwhile, the central government under Premier Chen Cheng had lopped off excess employees—the Foreign Office, for instance, had lost about two-thirds of its overseas personnel—and had introduced a system of paying the army that had killed a great many “paper soldiers.” No longer was it possible for a general to collect payrolls for troops who did not exist. The effect of all this was to balance every budget save that for military expenses.

Up to 1950, the crusading spirit had kept Chinese officialdom in Formosa reasonably honest.

Following a meeting of President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek at Cairo, on December 1, 1943, the three Allies in the Pacific war made clear their intention "to restrain and punish the aggression of Japan." They declared it to be their intention to restore to the Republic of China "all the territories Japan had stolen from the Chinese, such as Manchuria, Formosa, and the Pescadores." The restoration of Formosa, including the Pescadores, to China, will be a great problem, since it has now become involved in the question of

how to restore China to the non-Communist masters. Furthermore, while the Chinese want Formosa back, a large number of Formosans question the wisdom of such a step. And it is interesting to note that despite China's civil war, trade flourished in 1950 between Chinese businessmen on both sides. Some of the trade was direct between Communist Shanghai and Keelung, northern Formosa; much of it was indirect through the medium of the British colony of Hong Kong. Despite the bitterness of the civil war, both the Communists and the Chinese National regime approve of what is going on.

¹ The 397,000 Japanese (1943) have now all been evacuated to Japan.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools

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UNIT VI. THE STRUGGLE FOR DEMOCRACY. 5 WEEKS.

Specific Aims:

1. An understanding of how the struggle of the English people for democracy resulted in a constitutional monarchy rather than an absolute one.
2. An understanding of how the struggle of the people of the American colonies for democracy resulted in complete independence.
3. An understanding of the difficulties encountered by the French people in their struggle for democracy, and how democracy was delayed.
4. An understanding of the effects of the industrial revolution upon democracy.

Introduction:

The ushering in of modern times brought about, as we have seen, a changed world. But there was one important undesirable institution from as far back as ancient times which had not yet been destroyed—the institution

known as "the divine right of kings." This institution must be destroyed before further progress could be made. Kings must be made to realize that their power came from the people.

In this unit we shall see how the people of three great countries struggled for, and won, a share in their government. And so a new idea was born. If this struggle for democracy could have taken place, and succeeded, in other parts of the world at the same time, the twentieth century wars might have been prevented and the whole course of history changed. So the struggle for democracy and freedom continues, and will always continue, wherever people are oppressed.

Outline Survey of Unit:

ENGLAND—THE STUART KINGS

- I. Struggle between king and parliament
 - A. Differences between Tudor and Stuart kings
 1. Tudors didn't engage in useless wars and always need money
 2. Tudors knew how to lead parliament, not antagonize it

Editor's Note: This is the third group of units in an eleven-unit outline for a one-year World History course for high schools. Other units will appear in succeeding issues.

3. Tudors were careful with money
 - B. James I—Parliament's demands
 1. Help Protestants; enforce laws against Catholics
 2. Reduce expenses
 - C. Charles I
 1. Petition of Rights
 - a. No taxes without consent of Parliament
 - b. No soldiers in private homes
 - c. Imprisonment only according to law
 2. How Charles got money illegally
 - a. Taxes on imports and exports
 - b. Old feudal dues, special taxes, fines
 - c. Ship money
 - d. Granting titles
 3. The Long Parliament—king needed money to subdue Scots
 - a. Executed Charles' advisors
 - b. Abolished King's courts
 - c. Forbade illegal taxes
 - d. Must be regular meetings of Parliament
 4. Civil War—Cavaliers vs. Round-heads—Charles executed
 - II. Commonwealth of England—Cromwell's rule with 50,000 soldiers
 - III. Charles II—The Restoration—Catholic, but quiet about it
 - IV. James II—Ardent Catholic—"Glorious Revolution"
 - A. Son born to James
 - B. William and Mary invited over
 - C. Flight of James II
 - V. William and Mary
 - A. Bill of Rights
 1. King may not set aside laws of Parliament
 2. King may not levy taxes without consent of Parliament
 3. King may not maintain an army without consent of Parliament
 4. King may not interfere with regular meetings of Parliament
 5. King may not be Catholic or marry a Catholic
 - B. Toleration Act
 1. Anglicans favored with offices and privileges
 2. Dissenters recognized by law and could have own churches but not hold public office
 3. Catholics and Unitarians could worship privately; not hold public office
 - C. Laws making England a Constitutional monarchy—king responsible to constitution and Parliament
 1. King's allowance awarded for year at time instead of for life
 2. Army funds voted annually
 - VI. Anne
 - A. Union of England and Scotland by agreement
 - B. Act of Settlement—crown to go to nearest Protestant relative
 - VII. George I—of Hanover, son of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I.
 - A. Cabinet Government starts—George could not speak English
 - B. Office of Prime Minister becomes important
 - C. Cabinet becomes powerful—through George I and George II
- THE UNITED STATES
- I. Nations which sought fortunes in New World
 - A. Portugal—Brazil—Cabral's voyage
 - B. Spain—Southern N. America, Central America, S. America
 - C. Holland—New Amsterdam and West Indies—seized by English
 - D. England—Atlantic coast of North America
 - E. France—Canada and Mississippi Valley
 - F. Denmark—Iceland, Greenland
 - G. Sweden—Delaware
 - H. Russia—Alaska
 - II. Struggle between England and France for America and India
 - A. Treaty of Utrecht ending War of Spanish Succession—Queen Anne's
 1. England gets Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Hudson Bay region
 - B. Treaty of Paris—1763—ending Seven Years War—French and Indian
 1. England gets Canada, East of Mississippi, some West Indies
 2. Spain gets all west of Mississippi, New Orleans

3. England gets Florida for Havana and Manila

III. The 13 English Colonies become the United States of America

A. How the mother country interfered in the new land

1. Navigation and trade laws—trade only with England, but colonies traded anyhow and laws not enforced—until 1763
2. Stamp Act—finally repealed
3. Townshend Acts—tax on tea, glass, lead, painters colors—all repealed but tax on tea

B. Resistance in the colonies

1. Boston Tea Party
2. Trade stopped, early battles, Washington in command
3. War declared—fighting for rights as Englishmen
4. Declaration of Independence—July 4, 1776—no longer fighting just for rights as Englishmen
5. France aids the colonists—loans, navy, soldiers
6. Treaty of Paris—1783—gives independence to United States with Mississippi River, Canada, and Florida as boundaries

FRANCE A REPUBLIC SEVERAL TIMES

I. France under Louis XIV

A. Absolute power of Louis XIV—72 years

1. No Parliament to check on his actions or withhold funds
2. Control of superb army
3. French more willing to submit to authority than English
4. How Louis governed—personally decided all policies

B. How Colbert, finance minister, strengthened France

C. Extravagance of Louis XIV

1. The glory of Versailles
2. Arts and Letters—writers, artists, dramatists, French Academy, Astronomical Laboratory, Royal Library
3. Louis' Wars
 - a. First war with Holland
 - b. Second war with Holland

c. War on the Huguenots—many escape to Germany, England, United States

d. War of the Palatinate

e. War of the Spanish Succession—treaty of Utrecht 1713

- (1) Grandson of Louis could keep Spanish throne but the two thrones of Spain and France could not be united
- (2) England got Minorca, Gibraltar, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay region

II. Louis XV—1715-1774—59 years

A. Inheritance from great-grandfather

1. High taxes, exhausted treasury
2. Loss of American lands

B. Heavy taxes of peasants—80% of income

1. Land tax, highway tax
2. Poll tax, Church tithes
3. Old feudal dues to lord of manor
4. Indirect taxes on food, wine, tobacco

C. Privileges of clergy and nobility— $\frac{1}{4}$ million strong

1. Exempt from land tax
2. Hunting privileges preserve the game which damages peasants' crops—pigeons eat seed.
3. Nobles get highest offices in army and at court

D. The Third Estate—the Commons—25 million strong

1. Tillers of soil—peasants
2. Artisans—laborers and craftsmen
3. Business classes—professionals—doctors, teachers, lawyers

E. Seven Years War—France lost rest of land in New World

F. How the people were aroused

1. Teachers and reformers—Voltaire, Rousseau attack evils
2. Political clubs discuss government and religion
3. Example of English and American Revolutions

III. Louis XVI — 1774-1793 — Revolution breaks

A. The king and queen—Louis and Marie Antoinette

- B. Louis attempts some reforms—Turgot, Necker, Calonne
 - C. Estates-General formed—can't agree on how to meet and vote
 - D. National Assembly formed—Third Estate acts alone
 - 1. Tennis-Court Oath
 - 2. King finally orders all to meet together
 - E. Storming of the Bastille—King's prison
 - F. Reforms of the National Assembly
 - 1. Feudalism abolished—abolition of hunting rights, tax exemptions, church tithes, political privileges
 - 2. Declaration of the Rights of Man
 - G. Revolution becomes more violent
 - 1. People become suspicious—King forced to come to Paris
 - 2. Plots of nobles; King's escape prevented
 - H. New government — Constitutional Monarchy
 - 1. King suspended and sent to prison
 - 2. France proclaimed a republic
- IV. First French Republic 1792-1804
- A. Execution of the king
 - B. The Reign of Terror
 - 1. Revolutionary Tribunal created—thousands guillotined in Paris, shot, or drowned in the provinces
 - 2. Robespierre executes two rivals—Danton, Marat
 - 3. Robespierre executed—end of Reign of Terror
 - C. New government set up—Directory of five, and Legislature
 - D. How Napoleon Bonaparte overturned the Republic
 - 1. Early career, victory over old enemies, losses in Egypt
 - 2. Bonaparte becomes First Consul—reforms
 - a. Finances and taxes revised, debts cared for, Bank set up
 - b. The Code Napoleon
 - c. Catholic Church re-established; public education set up
 - d. Nobles restored—40,000 families return
 - 3. Consul for life—vote of people
 - 4. Emperor—action of Senate and people—ceremony—
- V. The French Empire 1804-1914 Napoleon I
- A. War with England, Austria, Russia, Sweden, Prussia
 - B. Continental system against England
 - C. Invasion of Russia—retreat
 - D. Battle of Nations in Prussia
 - E. Breakup of Empire—Napoleon abdicates—sent to Elba
- VI. Louis XVIII
- A. "The Hundred Days"—St. Helena
 - B. Congress of Vienna works out map of Europe along old lines. Compare with map before Napoleon's time
 - C. Holy Alliance
 - D. Quadruple Alliance — Concert of Europe
 - E. German Confederation—loose union of 38 states
 - F. Democracy stamped out in Spain—help of France
 - 1. Origin of Monroe Doctrine—King wants colonies back
 - G. Italy divided as before—liberals want reforms
- VII. Charles X—attempts to restore old order of absolute rule
- VIII. Louis Philippe—little freedom, moderate policy
- A. Public demonstrations demand reform
 - B. King abdicates
- IX. Second French Republic 1848—Louis Napoleon President
- A. Taking complete control—Republicans removed
 - B. New constitution enlarging powers and term of president
- X. Second French Empire established after another vote—Emperor Napoleon
- THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
- I. Modern science and the Idea of Progress
- A. Newer ways of thinking
 - 1. Looking to the past given up—new worlds, new contacts
 - 2. Observation and experiment take place of old textbooks
 - a. Experimental study leads to discoveries and inventions
 - B. Influence of Voltaire
 - C. Rousseau—father of modern democracy

1. Lawful government should rest on will of people
2. Liberty, equality, fraternity
- II. Machinery Introduced
 - A. Machine is substituted for labor of human hand
 1. Increase in amount of work possible—greater output
 2. Modern era of constant improvement ushered in
 - B. Early beginnings — spinning and weaving
 1. Spinning jenny—eight threads at time
 2. Water frame—fibers drawn out and twisted for strength
 3. Mule—combination of jenny and water frame
 4. Power loom—Cartwright
 - C. Other inventions
 1. Cotton gin—Whitney—takes seeds from 300 lbs, not 5 or 6
 2. Steam engine—perfected by Watt
 3. Processes for making better and cheaper iron and steel
 - D. The Machine Age—19th century
 1. Machines modernize old industries—shoes, hats, cloth, furniture
 2. Making of fine machine tools
 3. Canning
 4. Making of rubber and petroleum
- III. Results of Industrial Revolution
 - A. Good results—more goods, better goods, cheaper goods
 - B. Bad Results
 1. Creation of social classes—capitalists and laborers
 2. Less workers needed—poverty and unemployment
 3. Women and children in factories—long hours, low wages, increase of unemployment among men
 4. Ugly tenement districts and unsanitary slums
 - C. Improving bad conditions
 1. Government regulation — better laws for working men
 2. Workers form trade-unions—deal in a body with employers
 - D. The Rise of Socialism
 1. Reason for rise—no hope of reform of industry through operation of

- economic laws or government regulation
2. Meaning—"Means of production" should belong not to private individuals, but to the people—that is, the state, which would distribute profits—workers would get fair share
3. Early Socialists
 - a. Some said capitalists would of own accord give up industries
 - b. Others said laborers would have to seize industries
4. Karl Marx—German writer, lived in London
 - a. *The Communist Manifesto* — called upon workers of world to rise and seize means of production themselves
 - b. Capital — explains theories; shows that socialism is bound in time to prevail—working class must replace capitalists just as capitalists replaced feudal nobles
5. Socialistic Parties
 - a. Began in last half of 19th century
 - b. Took over governments of Germany and Russia after World War I

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading as basis of discussion
2. Class development of parts of outline
3. Class discussions based on outline
4. Map study and drill
5. Reports on reference reading, if any
6. Films, slides, filmstrips, if available
7. Library instruction on use of Readers' Guide

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Make a chart showing relationship between Tudor and Stuart rulers.
2. Map of World—*European Claims in New World*. Show with colors the new world claims of the following countries: Portugal, Spain, England, France, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Russia.
3. Maps—*North America Before 1763*
North America After 1763
North America After 1783
4. Map—*Europe in 1700—Louis XIV's Time*
5. Map—*Europe (1800)—Napoleon's Time*
6. Map—*Europe (1815) After the Congress of Vienna*.

UNIT VII. GROWTH OF THE NATIONAL SPIRIT. 3 WEEKS.

Specific Aims:

1. Tracing the steps in the union of Germany and Italy and understanding the relationship of these events to twentieth century wars.
2. Understanding of the working of cabinet government in France and England.
3. Understanding the development of democratic reforms in England.
4. Understanding the struggle for democracy in Britain's dependencies.
5. Understanding the lack of democracy in imperial Russia.

Introduction:

We have seen how nations developed during the Middle Ages and how several of them were fully formed. Now we are to see how these same nations developed more fully and became powerful. But there were two places whose national unity and development were retarded for various reasons. We shall examine the reasons for this delay in Germany and Italy and see how union here was finally brought about. We shall trace briefly the growth of Russia as a nation.

While this growth of strong nations marked progress in the advance of civilization, it also resulted in something which was not so good—the bitter rivalry which formed the roots of twentieth century wars. If you are ever to understand events of recent years as well as those which are now taking place you must carefully understand this national development and its resultant rivalry.

Why did the German and Italian people never struggle with autocratic rulers for self-government as did the English, the American, the French? Would an early struggle for democracy in those two countries have made any difference in twentieth century history? Why is Ireland a divided island? Why has Canada never desired independence such as we won from England? How did England's treatment of India result in the unsettled conditions there today? What is there in Russia's past which made Communism possible? Did the Russian people ever struggle for self-government before Communism took hold? Why do they not now rise up against Communism?

All the above questions, and many more, have their background in the events which you will study in this unit.

Outline Survey of Unit:

COMPARISON OF THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY AND ITALY GERMANY

- I. Reasons for tardiness in union
 - A. Holy Roman Empire
 - B. Jealousy of provinces
- II. Leaders
 - A. King William of Prussia
 - B. Chancellor Bismarck
- III. Early steps toward union
 - A. Breakup of Holy Roman Empire by Napoleon—some provinces united
 - B. Confederation of Rhine formed by Napoleon
 - C. New German Confederation formed after Napoleon
 - D. Prussia forms customs union
 - E. Prussia gets constitution
 - F. Industrial Revolution—railways and factories make people eager for a strong government
- IV. Bismarck's Wars to unite Germany
 - A. War with Denmark—Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark. North German provinces join union
 - B. War with Austria—Austria pushed out of German affairs. All German provinces join union save 4 southern ones
 - C. Franco-Prussian War
 1. Alsace-Lorraine taken
 2. Four southern German provinces join union
- V. German government—25 states and Alsace-Lorraine
 - A. Kaiser William I—House of Hohenzollern
 - B. Chancellor Bismarck—"Iron Chancellor"
 - C. Parliament
 1. Bundesrat—representatives of the 25 kings
 2. Reichstag—elected by people but no real power and did not really represent people
- VI. German progress
 - A. Development—army, railways, commerce, banking

- B. Troubles
 - 1. Catholics
 - 2. Socialists
- C. Colonies—Africa
- D. Industrial Revolution—Germany becomes England's rival

ITALY

- I. Reasons for tardiness in union
 - A. Holy Roman Empire
 - B. Jealousy of cities
 - C. Pope owned much land
- II. Leaders
 - A. King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia
 - B. Prime Minister Cavour
 - C. Garibaldi
- III. Early steps toward union
 - A. Mazzini—stirs up patriotism
 - B. King of Piedmont grants constitution
 - C. Cavour's reforms—railroads, army, public works, agriculture, factories
 - D. Crimean War—against Russia
- IV. Cavour's wars to unite Italy
 - A. Austrian War—united all provinces except Venetia and Rome
 - 1. Only Lombardy from Austria
 - 2. Five northern provinces join to help
 - 3. Garibaldi turns over Sicily, Naples, most of Papal States
 - B. Austrian War—Bismarck's War
 - 1. Venetia added
 - C. Franco-Prussian War—Bismarck's war
 - 1. Rome added—union complete
- V. Italian government
 - A. King Victor Emmanuel II—House of Savoy
 - B. Prime Minister Cavour
 - C. Parliament
 - 1. Senate
 - 2. House—elected by people, property qualifications for voting
- VI. Italian progress
 - A. "Prisoner of Vatican"
 - B. Economic development—industry, commerce, roads, bridges, harbors, shipping, army, navy—all results in high taxes

FRANCE

- I. Third French Republic—after Napoleon III defeated by Bismarck
 - A. National Assembly—elected by people—many parties
 - 1. Senate—9 years

- 2. Chamber of Deputies—4 years
- B. President—chosen by National Assembly
- C. Prime Minister—appointed by President—changed often
- D. Cabinet—selected by Prime Minister
 - 1. Makes up laws
 - 2. Resigns if laws are not approved by Assembly

II. Public Schools set up—why?

- A. Take education out of hands of church
- B. Educate people so they could govern themselves

III. Separation of Church and State in France—government ceased paying clergy and nominating bishops

IV. French Progress

- A. Industry and wealth—roads, canals, harbors, farming, factories
- B. Colonies
 - 1. Africa—Madagascar, Northwest and Central Africa
 - 2. Pacific— islands
 - 3. Asia—Indo-China

THE BRITISH EMPIRE—19TH CENTURY

I. The British Constitution

- A. "Liberty Documents"—Great Charter, Petition of Rights, Bill of Rights
- B. Important court decisions—on fundamental principles
- C. Important laws—affecting form and character of government
- D. Treaties—with other countries
- E. Long standing customs and practices

II. Lack of Democracy

- A. Parliament composed of rich nobles, landowners, business men
- B. Many couldn't vote
 - 1. Property required
 - 2. New cities and no representatives
- C. "Decayed villages" or "rotten boroughs"
- D. Corn Laws

III. Reforms

- A. Political
 - 1. Great Reform Bill 1832
 - a. "Rotten boroughs" abolished and new ones created
 - (1) Fewer than 2000—no representatives in Parliament
 - (2) Fewer than 4000—one representative in Parliament

- (3) New boroughs given representation
 - (4) Scotland and Ireland given more representatives
 - b. Property requirements reduced—but still the poor could not vote.
 2. Second Reform Bill—1867—all men could vote who paid taxes or rent of \$50 per year
 3. Third Reform Bill—1884—Franchise extended to farm and factory laborers
 4. Woman suffrage—1917, 1928
 5. Australian Ballot introduced—secret voting
 6. Parliament Act
 - a. Lords may not defeat money bills
 - b. Lords may not defeat any other bill after it has passed Commons three consecutive times
 7. British Government Today
 - a. King—signs bills, issues proclamations and official orders, opens Parliament, hands out titles
 - b. Parliament
 - (1) Lords—clergy, nobles—about 700 with hereditary titles
 - (2) Commons—about 600, each representing a district
 - c. Prime Minister and Cabinet—make up the laws and urge them through the Commons
 - B. Religious laws
 1. Repeal of laws against Dissenters—could hold office and attend universities
 2. Catholic Emancipation Act—admitted Catholics to Parliament and almost all public offices
 - C. Education
 1. Public funds for religious schools—1833
 2. Public elementary schools—1870
 3. Educational system reorganized—1902
 - D. Criminal Reform
 1. Death penalty used less—only for murder and treason
 2. Prison reform—cleaner prisons
 - E. Industrial reform
 1. Welfare of women and children in factories — reduced the working hours of children in spinning and weaving mills and prohibited the employment of children under nine
 2. Sanitary conditions to be improved
 3. Women and children forbidden to work in mines
 4. 1874—women and children work only ten hours a day
 5. "Free trade"—corn laws abolished
 6. Relief of poverty and unemployment — social insurance — old age pensions; unemployment and sickness insurance
- IV. Empire Lands
- A. Kinds of Lands
 1. Dominions—Canada, S. Africa, Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan
 2. Crown Colonies—Bermudas, Jamaica, Straits
 3. Stations and Outposts — Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, Guiana, Trinidad
 - B. Dominions and Former Dominions
 1. Ireland
 - a. Grievances
 - (1) Lands and peasant life
 - (2) Ulster—northern Ireland—Protestant
 - (3) Religion—had to pay for Anglican church, too
 - (4) Home Rule wanted
 - b. Reforms
 - (1) Disestablishment of Anglican Church—pay only for own church
 - (2) Abolish "absentee landlords"—land acts provided people could buy back their lands and the government would loan them money
 - (3) Struggle for home rule—dominion status—Gladstone Lloyd George
 - (a) Made a dominion 1921
 - (b) Changed name to Eire 1937
 - (c) Completely independent—about 1948
 - (d) Ulster stays with England
 2. India—380,000,000 people
 - a. How Britain acquired India
 - (1) British East India Company

- (2) Sepoy mutiny suppressed
- (3) Seven Years War 1763, Clive
- b. Problems
 - (1) Many races, languages, religions
 - (2) Caste system—abolished now
 - (3) Home rule wanted
- c. Four dominions created after World War II—India, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon
- d. Two now—India, Pakistan
- 3. Canada — 11 provinces including Newfoundland
 - a. Population—12 million
 - (1) Loyalists from U.S.
 - (2) French and English
 - b. Dominion created—1867—4 provinces then
 - (1) People wanted self-government
 - (2) Cabinet system set up
- 4. Australia — less population than London
 - a. Dutch—visit but do not claim
 - b. English settle with convicts from England
 - c. Dominion created—5 provinces
 - d. Improvements—white immigrants, pensions, minimum wage standards, secret ballot, government ownership and operation of railroads
- 5. New Zealand—same pattern as Australia except no convicts
- 6. South Africa
 - a. Dutch settle—Boers
 - b. English seize—in Napoleon's time
 - c. Dutch move north
 - d. Boer War
 - e. Dominion set up—Union of South Africa

RUSSIA

I. Early History

- A. Constantly invaded by wild tribes from Asia
 - 1. Huns—Attila
 - 2. Mongols—Genghis Khan
- B. Early Rulers
 - 1. Ivan the Great—united the Russians
 - 2. Peter the Great
 - a. Made Russia modern

- b. Window on Baltic
- 3. Catherine the Great
 - a. More seaports
 - b. Cut up Poland

II. Nineteenth Century Czars—dictators

- A. Alexander I—1810-1825
 - 1. Resisted Napoleon
 - 2. Suggested Holy Alliance
- B. Nicholas I—1825-1855
 - 1. Poland's Constitution taken away
 - 2. Crimean War
 - a. Russia declared war on Turkey
 - b. England and France stop Russia
- C. Alexander II—reformer—1855-1881
 - 1. Freed serfs on land owned by himself and nobles
 - 2. Jury system
 - 3. Some freedom of press
 - 4. Constitution drawn up—Czar assassinated
- D. Alexander III — 1881-1894 — stern tyrant
- E. Nicholas II—1894-1917—"the last of the Romanoffs"
 - 1. Industrial development—factories, coal mining, oil
 - 2. Dumas meet but have no power
 - 3. Russia enters World War I—1914
 - 4. Czar and family murdered—Revolution of 1917

III. Republic set up 1917

- A. Communists under Lenin return from exile 1917
- B. Communists overturn Republic 1917

IV. Communism in power—1917-1950

Suggested Class Activities:

- 1. Text reading as basis of discussion
- 2. Develop with the class in parallel columns the steps in the unification of Germany and Italy. Use wall map in tracing these steps.
- 3. Develop with the class England's democratic reform bills.
- 4. Class discussions of important topics in outline.
- 5. Special reports on outside readings.
- 6. Visual aids, if available

Suggested Home Work Activities:

- 1. Map—*Unification of Germany*. Show in colors territory added after each war.
- 2. Map—*Unification of Italy*. Show in colors territory added after each war.

3. Map—*British Empire at its Greatest Extent.*

4. Reports on readings from Reading List.

5. Topics for special reports:

Bismarck

Cavour

British Constitution

Gibraltar

Malta

Cyprus

Clive

Livingstone

Stanley

Cecil Rhodes

Genghis Khan

Ivan the Great

Peter the Great

The Next Act

HARRY C. WASASIER

Elizabeth, N. J.

For many centuries man has played a series of dramas on the stage of the world. In fact History shows us a multiplicity of dramas with many scenes at the same time. A few are off in the wings apparently contributing little to the main plot, but most, while complete in themselves are interacting with the others to produce a vague but recognizable pattern—the development of man. It is a continuous performance, each act depending on the last, with the actors improvising their lines and actions as they go along. So the curtain has rolled up on scenes of Egypt, Babylonia, and China; the dramas of Greece, Rome and the Middle Ages, and so on up to our own time. Right now confusion exists. A few know their lines, but most are wandering listlessly or hurrying aimlessly, seeking somewhere the direction of the next scene. For the players well know that much is at stake and a wrong cue may set them off to playing a tragedy they do not wish and whose horrors they can hardly imagine. During the past centuries, with decades of turning to right or left, and generations of retrogression, the general trend has been upward, and the theme the emancipation of man. But now the actors wonder whether they may be playing the last scene in an awful tragedy or if somehow they can bring the act to a triumphant conclusion. Past and present history may give the cue for the desired end.

The essence of History has been the struggle for the greater development of the individual. The Italian scholar, Benedetto Croce, has said

that the whole story of human history is the tale of man's struggle to be free. This means, of course, freedom to develop. The law of the universe might well be written—life must develop to its greatest potentiality. There is an inner compulsion to do this. When life ceases to grow, it dies. Dead civilizations and outlandish fossils give abundant proof of this. So life has grown from lower forms to the complex man of today. In recent years, the blind groping of previous eons has become a conscious striving. Men have deliberately sought goals that would release the fettered spirit and body of humanity.

Western interpretation of history has always been in this light. The significance of the warm river valley civilizations of Egypt and Mesopotamia is not that they existed in those places, but that they developed something: language that the human spirit might record its thoughts; art and music that the soul might expand; government that men might live together and protect these advances. We say today that it is fortunate that the Greeks defeated the Persians. Fortunate because man could make another advance in his erratic climb to heights where his personality could achieve finer fruition. For the Greeks gave to the world their free spirit of inquiry, their art and literature and certain ideals of democracy. Rome defeated Carthage and saved for us the better of two cultures with the gift of law, order and government. In each case we say that civilization advanced because man gained more

opportunity to develop. This hope of advance is the very essence of our belief. Without it we perish.

The modern world finds the best expression of the sacredness of personality in the thoughts of the eighteenth and nineteenth century writers, such as Rousseau, Voltaire, and John Locke, with the restatement of one of the political principles by Thomas Jefferson when he said "all men are created equal," and that they have "certain unalienable Rights." By education, change in custom and statute, these ideals in some measure have been realized. Today when we evaluate any particular practice or proposed change, the criterion is always, "is it good for the people?" If more people have greater opportunity for development we call it progress. It is the mainspring of our civilization.

Religion has followed the same pattern. If it is possible to single out any greatest good that Christianity has given the world, it is that the individual is sacred. No matter how deeply man has fallen in sin, no matter what a wreck he seems to be morally and physically, he still has an immortal soul of immeasurable value. Other religions in the past have placed some humans in an inferior position, have allowed slavery, have even sacrificed people to the lust and honor of their gods. None has so glorified the individual by giving him stature, nobility and hope as has Christianity. Progress in religion has been the gradual emancipation of the human soul.

Where is man today in his journey toward the stars? In many respects he has gone a long way. In our western lands medicine and sanitation have increased his life span, education has broadened his viewpoint, technological improvements and science have given him leisure time. But most important of all he is free. Within reason he may do as he wishes. His body is not in slavery. His mind and spirit he may develop as he wishes. The stage is all set for the next act—of a brilliance that might overshadow all past performances. But the actors are not interested in developing their lines. Why prepare for a play if it is never to be put on? Why perfect every expression and memorize every cue if the theater may go up in smoke? Hope of progress is lost because we

live in the age of international wars with the atom bomb, a more horrible sword of Damocles than the most vivid imagination could have dreamed of a short generation ago.

There were one hundred twenty-nine thousand casualties at Hiroshima. That was staggering enough, but worse came with the hydrogen bomb. Senator Brien MacMahon, chairman of the Joint Congressional Committee on Atomic Energy, speaks of incinerating fifty million Americans in a few minutes. *Life* magazine begins an editorial page by saying "This is the age of obliteration." Allowing for exaggeration, it is all too horrible for the mind to grasp. Scientists at the annual meeting of the American Physical Society meeting at Columbia University tell not only of the immediate loss of life, but of persistent radio activities that would render the bombed area, hundreds of square miles in extent, uninhabitable for centuries. Then science with a wry grimace tells us that all is not lost. Certain amoebae and algae are not destroyed by radioactivity. Thus life is saved, and nature, to whom time is nothing, can begin again and in a few billion years create a civilization that might not commit suicide.

Is it any wonder that we are disheartened? This type of thinking is ruinous. The full sweep has not come yet, for the time has been too short, but the trend is clear. It is one of great futility. What is the use of building; what even is the use of all that has been built, if our way of living will be destroyed? Oh, yes, we go on buying automobiles and building houses, passing laws and pursuing pleasure, but we make little progress in fundamental things. Half-heartedly we begin, then stop because in the background of our consciousness comes the specter of the bomb. What if it should fall in this block; the next block; ten miles away? What then could be the wreckage our dead eyes could not see? After the First World War, in spite of the "lost generation" we had hope. Democracy, freedom, opportunity for growth were to receive a new stimulus, and under that spur we could advance. But now so soon after this war, we are filled with a cynical disillusion. In all areas we see despair. Few if any authors are writing books of hope and confidence. Some books are clever, searching, or well written,

but where is a book of faith that depicts the whole man looking trustfully into the future? We are turning to religion, not with the hope that we may walk with the Lord to reach a higher destiny, but that we may die in His arms. We are all sick, spiritually ill, morally confused, and fearfully guilty because we have created the destroyer and cannot control it. Not only are we aware of the next war, we are permeated with it. One hears time and again this type of half-humorous statement springing out of unquenchable fear, "I guess I won't pay off the mortgage this year. Borrow a little more, redecorate a bit, and spend the rest for good liquor. Might as well live while I can. Maybe the atom bomb will land here." Even Dr. Vannever Bush in his *Modern Arms and Free Men*, a book that with gyroscopic fidelity refuses to be drawn from the path it has laid down, that of putting the bomb in its proper subordinate place, says of a third world war, "It would cost millions of lives and exhaust the accumulation of treasure of many years." This lost treasure would be our treasure. The bombed cities would be those in which we live. The people who would have to struggle for a mere existence (if any remained) would be our children and our children's children. And who would be left to give the poor remnants a Marshall Plan?

We seize upon the United Nations and try to squeeze a few drops of comfort from it. True, it has accomplished many peripheral results and is well worth while on that account, but can it accomplish its main object, that of preventing war? The Korean crisis has both strengthened the U.N. and shown its fundamental weakness. Its brave showing against aggression rallied to its support the peace-loving people of the free world. For a moment all were hopeful that it might set a successful pattern for keeping peace. But the open intervention of Red China, undoubtedly backed by Russia, has changed all this. Once more we have the spectacle of *nation* ranged against *nation*. The world needs some method of apprehending, trying and punishing violators of international peace without involving whole nations. Within a country this has been accomplished. When the State of New York wishes to punish a criminal that has fled to New Jersey, it does not send an army against New Jersey.

Established law and order backed by government furnish the method. The United Nations cannot do this. It cannot capture individual war mongers and bring them before the bar of international justice. This is the weakness. But it does not mean that we must scrap the U.N. Quite the contrary. The United Nations is our one hope. Perhaps, despite the events that seem to be leading to the great conflagration, the U.N. may be able to surmount one crisis, then another, and another until the framework is so altered and strengthened as to really guarantee peace.

Under present political forms man is truly bankrupt and further progress with the fear of international war and partial annihilation is impossible. We must find something positive to lift us out of ourselves. Man must have a hope; a realizable ideal toward which he can work and summon his latent energy. Only so can he continue to develop his stature as a man; his spirit as a soul. Since our present international government or lack of government will lead only to destruction, we must try something new. What is there big enough to challenge man? What is solid enough to offer hope? What is real enough to tackle with prospect of success? The one answer is *world government*. World government has always been a good idea, and a practical one ever since communication and transportation have made the world a small enough place. Today it is more than practical; it is imperative. We must support the United Nations to the hilt and at the same time endeavor to strengthen it until it becomes a true world government. Several forms have been advocated, but the simplest and perhaps the only one that can be realized is world federation. It is the only form in which each nation can keep its identity, yet give to the international authority the certain limited powers that can preserve peace. It is the Baruch Plan fully realized, and then one step more. This is not the place to discuss the advantages of world federalism over other plans. The present thesis is to say that world government is the only plan that offers any hope for humanity.

What will the next act be? World federal government can bring peace, not peace without problems, but a peace in which we may solve

(Continued on page 259)

T 16. Issues and Politics, 1815 - 1829

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Era of Good Feeling
 - a. James Monroe, President, last of the "Virginia Dynasty"
 - b. "Era of Good Feeling"
 - c. Republican party policies
2. Strengthening the National Government
 - a. John Marshall, greatest Chief Justice
 - b. Marshall's views on federal supremacy and on the role of the Supreme Court; the great decisions strengthening both
3. Slavery Emerges As an Acute National Issue
 - a. Developments prior to War of 1812: slavery in colonial times and reasons for its decline in the north; colonial attitudes toward slavery; early abolition societies; the cotton gin and slavery's spread; position on slavery taken in Ordinance of 1787 and Constitution; law forbidding importation of slaves (1808)
 - b. Developments during the 1810s: reasons for the mounting westward migrations and for the westward spread of slavery; the rapid admission of new states to total of 22 in 1819, equally divided as slave and free (a principle observed until 1850); divided opinions on legality of slavery's extension
 - c. Plans to return freedmen to Africa; the Republic of Liberia; upshot
4. Missouri Compromise
 - a. Missouri's application for statehood; arguments for and against slavery's extension beyond the original domain of 1783; Congressional proposals and debates
 - b. Maine's application for statehood; Clay's Missouri Compromise, (1820); its consequences
5. Sectional Issues and Party Changes
 - a. Varying interests developing in North, South, West after War of 1812, and why; increasing impact of western interests, viewpoints, and wants upon the East; western leaders, notably Henry Clay, Thomas Benton, Andrew Jackson
 - b. Contested election of 1824; Clay's role in electing J. Q. Adams, and the consequences; Republican party split into National and Democratic Republicans
 - c. Internal improvements: public need for interstate highways and other internal improvements; conflicting views on the merits of, and constitutional authority for, federal participation in such construction; the National (Cumberland) Pike; other improvements proposed and acted upon under Madison and Monroe, and their views thereon; state activities in building roads, bridges, canals; the story of the Erie Canal and its effects upon the West and upon New York and other coastal cities
6. Changes in United States, 1815-1829
 - a. Rapid growth of manufacturing and of urban population; the expanding West; deepening sectional cleavages
 - b. Political changes reflecting spreading democratic views: manhood suffrage, popular elections, rotation in office, national conventions and platforms, etc.
 - c. Social changes reflecting spreading democratic views: dress styles, agitation for public education, demands for social reforms, the Anti-Masonic movement, etc.

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Land of Liberty, Reel II; Romance of Louisiana (16 mm. sound films; 20 min. each). Teaching Film Custodians

Territorial Expansion of the U. S. from 1783 to 1853 (16 mm. sound film; 22 min.). International Geographic Pictures; also Eastin Films

The Growing Republic—The Rise of the New West, 1815-1850; Westward Movement and the Rising Slavery Question, 1815-1850 (filmstrips). Society for Visual Education

Pioneers and Settlers of Louisiana and Texas (film-strip). Eye Gate House

Great American Inventors (4 filmstrips). Curriculum Films, Inc., 41-17 Crescent St., Long Island City, N. Y.

Pioneers West to the Mississippi (36 plates). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers

HISTORIES

K. C. Babcock, *The Rise of American Nationality*; G. P. Garrison, *Westward Extension*; F. J. Turner, *The Rise of the New West*; A. B. Hart, *National Ideals Historically Traced* (The American Nation, vols. 13, 14, 17, 26)

J. W. Burgess, *The Middle Period* (American History series)

E. S. Corwin, *John Marshall and the Constitution*; W. E. Dodd, *The Cotton Kingdom*; A. B. Hulbert, *The Paths of Inland Commerce*; F. A. Ogg, *The Old Northwest*; C. L. Skinner, *Pioneers of the Old Southwest* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 16, 18, 19, 21, 27)

R. H. Gabriel, *The Lure of the Frontier*; F. A. Ogg, *Builders of the Republic* (The Pageant of America, vols. 2, 8)

A. B. Hart, *Formation of the Union* (Epochs of American History)

A. Johnson, *Union and Democracy* (Riverside History of the U. S.)

J. A. Krout & D. R. Fox, *The Completion of Independence*; C. R. Fish, *The Rise of the Common Man* (A History of American Life, vols. 5, 6)

B. Cabell & A. J. Hanna, *The St. Johns*; M. S. Douglas, *The Everglades*; C. H. Matschat, *Suwannee River*; S. Vestal, *The Missouri* (Rivers of America series)

J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, II; C. A. & M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*, I; R. A. Billington & J. B. Hedges, *Westward Expansion: A History of the American Frontier*; G. Brooks, *Dames and Daughters of the Young Republic*; Cambridge Modern History, VII; E. Channing, *History of the U. S.*, V; D. C. Clark, *The West in American History*; E. Dick, *The Dixie Frontier: A Social History of the Southern Frontier . . .*; J. H. Franklin, *From Slavery to Freedom: A History of the American Negroes*; S. H. Holbrook, *Lost Men of American History*; J. K. Hosmer, *History of the Louisiana Purchase*; A. B. Hulbert, *Great American Canals*; J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the U. S.*, II, IV, V; J. Macy, *The Anti-Slavery Crusade*; H. D. Millhollen & M. Kaplan, *Presidents on Parade*; M. Minnigerode, *Some American Ladies*; J. F. Rhodes, *History of the U. S. from the Compromise of 1850*, I; E. E. Sparks, *The Men Who Made the Nation*

BIOGRAPHIES

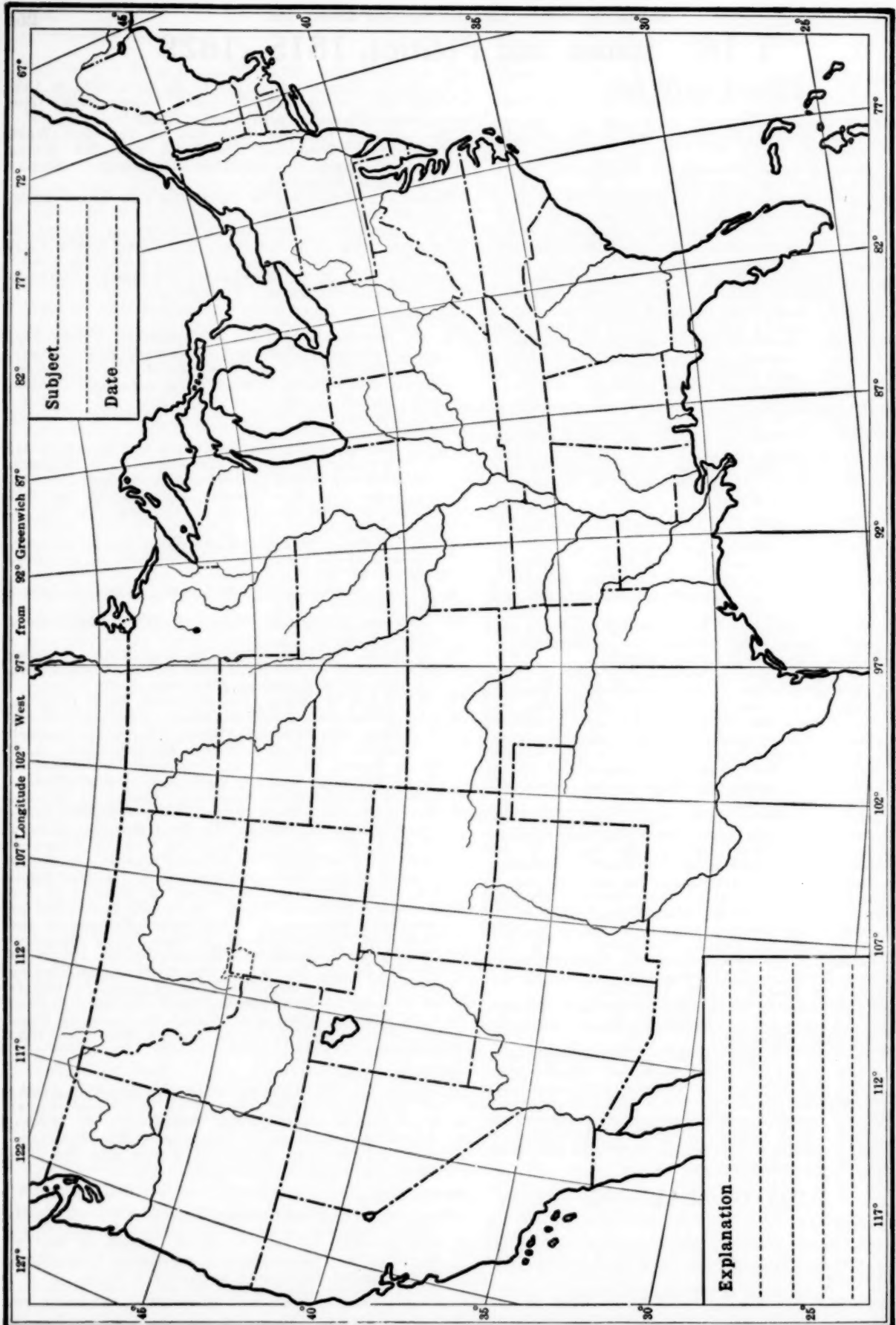
D. Bobbé, *De Witt Clinton*; T. Boyd, *Poor John Fitch*; A. Britt, *The Boys' Own Book of Frontiersmen*; B. C. Clark, *John Quincy Adams*; T. F. Moran, *American Presidents*; B. Moses, *John Marshall*. Consult the American Statesmen Series and the Dictionary of American Biography

ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the . . . U. S.*; Plates 61, 62, 67, 68, 123; *The United States Geo-Historic Map Slides*, II (From the Revolution to the Civil War)

¹ This is the sixteenth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

McKinley's Geographical and Historical Outline Maps. No. 176b. The United States. (State boundaries.)

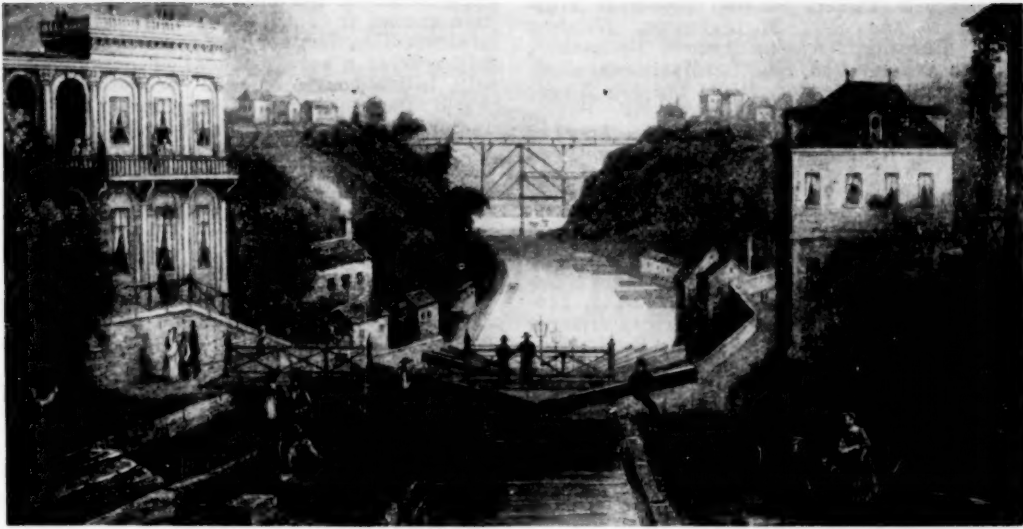


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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T16: FREEDOM AND SLAVERY, 1821

1. Indicate the twelve free and the twelve slave states in 1821. 2. Show the provisions of the Missouri Compromise. 3. Label the territories of Florida, Michigan, Arkansas, Missouri (unorganized). 4. Locate the British Domain, Spanish Domain, Oregon Country.

AMERICAN SCENES AFTER WAR OF 1812



Three aspects of American life in the 1820's are depicted here: A scene on the Erie Canal, a butchers' parade in busy Philadelphia, and a New Orleans slave auction as an Englishman saw it. What differences from life now do you notice?

MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T16: FREEDOM AND SLAVERY, 1821
 1. Indicate the twelve free and the twelve slave states in 1821. 2. Show the provisions of the Missouri Compromise, 3. Label the territories of Florida, Michigan, Arkansas, Missouri (unorganized). 4. Locate the British Domain, Spanish Domain, Oregon Country.

STORIES

C. S. Bailey, *Children of the Handcrafts*; A. Bontemps, *Black Thunder*; I. Fuller, *Shining Trail*; L. Hubbard, *Rivers to the Sea*; M. Johnston, *Hunting Shirt*; M. F. Lansing, *Nicholas Arnold, Toolmaker*; C. Lowe, *Quicksilver Bob*; E. L. Matthews, *Over the Blue Wall*; S. W. Meader, *Down the Big River*; C. L. Meigs, *As the Crow Flies*; E. W. Parks, *Pioneer Pilot*; M. Sutton, *Jemima, Daughter of Daniel Boone*; H. H. Violette & A. C. Darby, *Trail to Santa Fé*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, 111, 121; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 89, 97, 99, 102, 103; S. E. Forman, *Sidelights on Our . . . History*, pp. 63-77, 140-142, 144-145, 166-171, 303-316; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, 111, chs. 20-23; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 59-61, 64, 71-74; *Veterans of Foreign Wars, America*, V ("1812—Before and After")

TWO NOTABLE EVENTS, 1820-1825

1. THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE

THOMAS'S AMENDMENT, FEBRUARY 17, 1820

And be it further enacted, That, in all that territory ceded by France to the United States, under the name of Louisiana, which lies north of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude, excepting only such part thereof as is included within the limits of the State contemplated by this act, slavery and involuntary servitude, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall be and is hereby forever prohibited: *Provided always*, That any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any State or Territory of the United States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed, and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service, as aforesaid.—*Annals*, 16th Cong., 1st Sess., 427, 428.

ENABLING ACT, MARCH 6, 1820

Be it enacted . . . That the inhabitants of that portion of the Missouri territory included within the boundaries hereinafter designated, be, and they are hereby, authorized to form for themselves a constitution and state government, and to assume such name as they shall deem proper; and the said state, when formed, shall be admitted into the Union, upon an equal footing with the original states, in all respects whatsoever. . . .

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That in all that territory ceded by France to the United States, under the name of Louisiana, which lies north of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude, not included within the limits of the state, contemplated by this act, slavery and involuntary servitude, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted, shall be, and is hereby, forever prohibited; *Provided always*, That any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed, in any state or territory of the United States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labour or service as aforesaid.—*U. S. Stat. at Large*, III, 545-548.

Notice how the Thomas Amendment is repeated in the Enabling Act. What was unusual about this legislation?

2. THE ERIE CANAL

As an organ of communication between the Hudson, the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence, the great lakes of the north and west, and their tributary rivers, it [the Erie Canal] will create the greatest inland trade ever witnessed. The most fertile and extensive regions of America will avail themselves of its facilities for a market. All their surplus productions, whether of the

soil, the forest, the mines, or the water, their fabrics of art and their supplies of foreign commodities, will concentrate in the city of New York, for transportation abroad or consumption at home. Agriculture, manufactures, commerce, trade, navigation, and the arts, will receive a correspondent encouragement. That city will, in the course of time become the granary of the world, the emporium of commerce, the seat of manufactures, the focus of great moneyed operations, and the concentrating point of vast, disposable, and accumulating capitals, which will stimulate, enliven, extend, and reward the exertions of human labor and ingenuity, in all their processes and exhibitions. And before the revolution of a century the whole island of Manhattan, covered with habitations and replenished with a dense population, will constitute one vast city.—De Witt Clinton, in *View of the Grand Canal* (N. Y., 1825), p. 20; quoted in Turner, *Rise of the New West*, pp. 32-33.

The first gun, to announce the complete opening of the New York Canal, was to be fired at Buffalo, on Wednesday last, at 10 o'clock, precisely, and it is probable that so it was. It was repeated, by heavy cannon stationed along the whole line of the canal and river, at convenient distances, and the gladsome sound reached the city of New York at 20 minutes past 11—when a grand salute was fired at fort Lafayette, and reiterated back again to Buffalo. It passed up the river to Albany, 160 miles, in 18 minutes. The cannon that were used on this memorable occasion, on the line between Buffalo and Rochester, were some of those that Perry had before used on Lake Erie, on the memorable 11th of September, 1814. . . .

. . . [A] splendid ceremony took place [at Buffalo] on the 26th ult. when the boat "The Seneca Chief," started on her voyage to the city of New York. Gov. Clinton and lieut. gov. Tallmadge were present—also the New York delegation and committees from many other places. The Seneca Chief was followed by many other boats, among them one called "Noah's Ark," filled with animals and creeping things—among them a bear, two fawns, many birds and fish, and two Indian youths in the dress of their nation. . . .

As was expected, the first boat from lake Erie arrived at New York on the 4th inst. She was conveyed by a fleet of steam boats, gaily dressed and decorated, and received with thunders of artillery, and the acclamations of rejoicing scores of thousands. Accompanying the "Seneca Chief," from Erie, was the "Young Lion of the West" from Rochester, and the "Niagara" from Black Rock. The Rochester boat had on board wolves, deer, racoon, a fox, and two Eagles—to denote the subjection of the wilderness to man. . . . At about 9 o'clock, the fleet from Albany, being joined by many other vessels, splendidly dressed, and some of which were ornamented with a profusion of flowers, started on a voyage to the sea. . . . When the procession reached Sandy Hook, gov. Clinton performed the ceremony of uniting the waters, by pouring a keg of that of lake Erie into the Atlantic; upon which he delivered the following address:

"The solemnity, at this place, on the first arrival of vessels from Lake Erie, is intended to indicate and commemorate the navigable communication, which has been accomplished between our Mediterranean seas and the Atlantic ocean, in about eight years, to the extent of more than four hundred and twenty-five miles, by the wisdom, public spirit and energy of the people of the state of New York, and may the God of the heavens and the earth smile most propitiously on this work, and render it subservient to the best interests of the human race."—*Niles Register*, Vol. 29, pp. 129, 147, 173-174 (Oct. 29, Nov. 5, 12, 1826).

Did Governor Clinton, father of the Erie Canal, correctly predict the effects of the canal? What were the striking features of the opening ceremonies? What events particularly would have interested a newsreel camera man?

(Continued from page 254)

them. Without world government we will have cold war, terrific taxes, futility instead of progress, hydrogen bombs, and at length catastrophe. We, the actors, must seize on the right

cue, speak the lines and develop the scenes that will lead to world government. Only thus, can we formulate a world where the individual in cooperation with his fellows will have the incentive to advance to new heights.

The Sabotage of European Rearmament

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During 1950, the United Nations in its endeavors to block Communist aggression faced grave dangers of sabotage in many places and the threats of sabotage everywhere outside the Iron Curtain. As the United States hastened to rearm Europe, its efforts were hampered by strikes and slow-downs in those countries, especially in France, Italy, and West Germany, where Communists were strong and well organized. As far back as October 5, 1947, the Cominform commanded all the Communists to join in an aggressive campaign against "imperialist England and America." It intensified its efforts in November, 1949, when it launched the spurious peace campaign as a facade behind which the Communists could carry on their activities unmolested. The Cominform recommended that all the parties in many countries should "make wise use of the new and effective forms of mass struggle for peace which fully justify themselves." Under the direction of the Moscow-controlled Communist Information Bureau, the Parties organized committees for the defense of peace, circulated petitions for peace and protests against rearmament programs, collected funds for the struggle for peace, and instigated boycotts of films, newspapers, books, and magazines which advocated military preparedness.

To effect the Cominform's recommendations, the Communists organized the Permanent Committee of the World Peace Congress, which convened in Stockholm, March 15-19, 1950, and issued the following *World Peace Appeal*: "We demand the unconditional prohibition of the Atomic weapon as a weapon of intimidation and mass extermination of human beings. We de-

mand the institution of strict control to enforce this. We shall consider as a war criminal that government which first employs the atomic weapon against any country. We call upon all people of goodwill throughout the world to sign this appeal." When the *World Peace Appeal* was brought to the United States, Secretary of State Dean Acheson said: "It should be recognized for what it is, a propaganda trick in the spurious peace offensive of the Soviet Union."

During July, after the advent of the Korean War, the Soviet peace offensive gained public attention in the United States. The American Communists established as their headquarters the Peace Information Center in New York City. Directed by Abbot Simon, it was sponsored by a committee of Communists and their sympathizers. The Peace Information Center circulated the *World Peace Appeal*, sought signatures for it, and conducted a campaign against American involvement in the Korean war. Members of the Communist party-line unions, such as the United Electrical Workers, United Office and Professional Workers, and the Marine Cooks and Stewards, provided many of the workers for the peace movement. In Brooklyn the headquarters for the movement was the office of the Amalgamated Machine Instrumental and Metal Workers, a union expelled from the CIO as Communist-dominated.

Ilya Ehrenburg, famous Russian author, writing in *Pravda*, July 8, called upon all signers of *World Peace Appeal* to act at once that they might prevent a third world war. Leonid Sobelev, also writing for *Pravda*, interpreted the peace pledge as follows: "I vote against war—and this is not merely a matter

of words. It means that I shall do my utmost to prevent war. I shall stop trains; I shall refuse to unload ships carrying war materials; I shall not supply fuel for planes; I shall seize the arms of mercenaries . . ."

As the peace campaign in Europe gained greater momentum, acts of sabotage increased. The Communists last January laid careful plans to block the flow of arms under the North Atlantic Treaty. The first shipments under the billion dollar program arrived in Europe during late February and early March, and the Communists were on hand at the docks to block the unloading of arms. The Communists among the dockers of Calais, Genoa, and Rotterdam enacted resolutions and circulated petitions against the flow of armaments. In obedience to the Communist directives, the French CGT (General Confederation of Labor) on March 4 declared a 24 hour stoppage in all French ports as a protest against the delivery of American arms. Following this the dockers of Marseille, Rouen, and Dunkirk refused from time to time to load munitions going to Indo-China and to unload cargoes from the United States. In Italy the stevedores of Genoa, Naples, and Venice followed the French examples. The Communist unions of Europe successfully delayed, but failed to stop, the shipment of armaments.

Behind the sabotage of military preparation stands the World Federation of Trade Unions. Meeting on May 22, its executive committee proclaimed the following resolution: "We, members of the Executive Committee, sign the appeal of the Permanent Committee of the World Peace Congress and call upon all factory and office workers and working men and women to affix their signatures to the appeal of the Permanent Committee and thereby express their unflinching will to defend the cause of peace."

Although the WFTU includes most of organized labor, the American Congress of Industrial Organizations and the British Trade Union have withdrawn from it. Arthur Deakin, of Britain, became president of the WFTU in 1946, only to find that the British trade unions could not cooperate with that Communist-dominated body. It sent delegations to Korea, China, Malaya, and Indonesia, not to organize free trade unions but to spread party-line propaganda. And when Mr. Deakin proposed the dis-

cussion of the role of the Marshall plan in European recovery, the World Federation vehemently refused to consider it. Finally he became convinced that the meeting of the WFTU in Prague during 1947, with its parade of well-disciplined workers, was a rehearsal for the Revolution of 1948 in Czechoslovakia.

The Communists have long infiltrated important unions, controlling public services like electricity and transportation, in which they would have the greatest opportunity to disrupt order, spread confusion, and destroy morale. Following this proven Communist policy, the WFTU meeting in Paris, July 19, 1949, organized a separate International Union of Seamen and Dockers, and appointed Harry Bridges, head of the International Longshoremen's Union on the Pacific Coast, as its new president. In accepting this position Bridges defied the CIO which had already severed connections with the international organization.

M. Saillant, president of the WFTU, rejoiced in the formation of this new union. "For the first time in history," he said, "a true international union is created. It is a powerful tool for peace. On all the oceans, in all the ports of the world, 750,000 dockers are henceforth fighters for peace." The formation of the new union was necessary, he went on to say, in order to "fight against the harmful effects of capitalism and the menace of war."

The first official act of the new International Union of Seamen and Dockers was a resolution to give effective aid to the striking dockers of England and Canada. The Communists, who hampered English shipping by a long strike during 1949, fomented a second strike in April, 1950. By means successfully used on the Continent, the Communists have infiltrated the maritime unions of Britain to stir up discontent and foster factions among the dock workers. Not only have they precipitated strikes but also they have committed acts of sabotage against the British Navy. On July 14, they blew up nine ammunition barges at Portsmouth, and a month later they sabotaged the boiler tube on the aircraft carrier *Illustrious*. After the acts of sabotage had occurred, the British government created an anti-sabotage branch to screen all naval workers of Communist sympathies.

In the United States, President Truman alerted the nation on July 24 to the danger of

espionage, sabotage, and other subversive activities. He urged citizens and local police to cooperate with the Federal Bureau of Investigation to prevent such activities. J. Edgar Hoover, head of the FBI, outlining what individuals could do to prevent sabotage, stated that the Communist Party has 52,000 members in this country and that every member could get ten other persons to do his bidding. On the same day, the Chairman of the National Security Resources Board, W. Stuart Symington, while testifying before the Senate Banking and Currency Committee said: "We know that members of the International Communist movement will not hesitate to shoot down any who stand in the way of their often expressed intention to first defeat the peace-loving democratic nations and then destroy their way of life."

Labor leaders in the United States, as well as government officials, have recognized the dangers of Communist sabotage. During World War II the CIO had eleven affiliates with approximately one million members under Communist or pro-Communist leadership. Since 1946, the CIO national executives have struggled to expel the Communists. They first tried to force the local unions to rid themselves of their Communist leadership, and this tactic met with some success. They then contrived to have the Communist-led locals to affiliate with unions of conservative leadership. Although great progress has been made in putting the Unions in the hands of leaders loyal to the United States, the Communists still control several labor organizations including the important Electrical Workers.

The greatest dangers of sabotage in the United States arise among the seamen's and docker's unions, which are controlled by Harry Bridges and other Communist leaders. Cognizant of the dangers, the non-Communist unions, led by Joseph Curran, president of the National Maritime Union, agreed to delay no ship because government authorities reject the Communist seamen as bad security risks.

The Federal Government took another step to safeguard shipping by directing the Coast Guard, in cooperation with the Customs Bureau and the FBI, to search all vessels from countries behind the Iron Curtain as potential "Trojan" ships carrying atomic bombs.

Other countries have enacted legislation to prevent sabotage. On March 1, the French National Assembly passed a bill providing jail terms of five to ten years for attempts to hinder national defense, impede military shipments, or injure army morale. When the bill came up for debate, the Communists conducted an all-night filibuster against it, and even resorted to violence to prevent its adoption.

This legislation did not assure the internal security of France. On July 28, Jules Moch, new minister of defense warned the National Assembly that France must hasten to quadruple internal defenses against fifth columnists and saboteurs or suffer the fate of Czechoslovakia. "Already in view of the number of sabotage actions and explosions in the world either on ships or on planes," he said, "every nation should consider that it is in a state of alarm."

Not yet successful in Western Europe, the Russians have triumphed in Eastern Europe and China. They have gained control over 500 million people without using a Russian army. This has been done by political infiltration, propaganda, subversion, and sabotage. In Burma the Communists have long been in open rebellion against the government. In Indo-China they have conducted a bitter campaign against the "imperialistic warmongers." On July 24, the Vietminh Committee for Saigon broadcasted an appeal to "intensify sabotage, suppress traitors, and transform the city into a guerilla zone . . ." Its radio interpreted the Stockholm peace pledge as a "sincere decision to help slaughter the French enemy."

Mr. Jacob Malik, speaking to the Security Council of the United Nations, directed his propaganda message to Asia, inciting his Communist devotees, already burning with fanaticism, to increase their acts of violence. He uses the UN as a sounding board to spread the Communist party line and to rally dissident groups everywhere against the United States. By turning language upside down and subverting parliamentary procedure, he employs the freedoms of democracy to destroy democracy. For a decade the United States Government has endeavored to deport Australian-born Harry Bridges as a dangerous alien but has failed to do so. In view of such uncertainty and confusion, can the United States act decisively and quickly enough to prevent sabotage?

Teaching About the Marshall Plan

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

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At the end of May, last year, about fifty people, of whom the present writer was one, were invited to Washington to meet with Mr. Paul Hoffman and the staff of E.C.A. to consider ways by which the work of the Marshall Plan could be discussed and appraised more effectively in the public schools. Arranged by Mrs. Helen Hamilton Woods, Director, Division of Public Liaison, Office of Information of the Economic Cooperation Administration, the conference aroused in the minds of those present a new admiration for the quality of leadership in the E.C.A., and a new realization of the importance of their work.

Asked to consider how the purposes, activities, and significance of the Marshall Plan might be more effectively brought to American students, the people who attended that conference urged the E.C.A. to prepare a bulletin to be used as a study guide by teachers and leaders of discussion groups. As a result of the discussion carried on by that group, a sub-committee was appointed to work with the staff of E.C.A. in the preparation of such a guide. The members of that sub-committee were Walter Mohr of the George School in Pennsylvania, Howard R. Anderson and Howard H. Cummings of the United States Office of Education, and Merrill F. Hartshorn of the National Council for the Social Studies.

This sub-committee chose Lewis Paul Todd, editor of *Social Education*, the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, to prepare the bulletin. His task was to interpret the E.C.A. program in terms which would be of maximum help to teachers. Titled *The Marshall Plan; A Program of International Cooperation* (Office of Information; Economic Cooperation Administration; Washington 25, D. C.; free to those requesting it), that study guide is now available to teachers as well as to the leaders of adult discussion groups.

The sixty-three-page pamphlet is divided into eight sections and a study guide. The eight content sections are devoted to these topics:

"What Is It—and Why?"; "How Does It Work"; "The Problem of International Trade"; "The Record Speaks"; "What Europeans Think About the Program"; "What Americans Think About the Program"; "ECA and the Far East"; and "The Marshall Plan and America's Foreign Policy."

It is pointed out, at the very beginning, that "The Marshall Plan is one of the most significant demonstrations of international cooperation in peacetime history. Those who formulated the program wrote into it the same long-range objectives to which they had subscribed as members of the United Nations—peace, freedom, and a decent standard of living for people everywhere—and in its operation the Marshall Plan has added strong support to the growing structure of world organization. Where World War II destroyed on a scale to stagger the imagination, the Marshall Plan seeks to rebuild—and on an even vaster scale, for it seeks not merely to reconstruct what was destroyed but to lay the foundations for a better world. Where World War II brought chaos and despair, the Marshall Plan seeks to bring order, prosperity, and hope. It is a mixture of hard-headed business, in which the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) is wringing every penny out of the dollar, and a deep-rooted concern for the dignity of the individual and the sacredness of human life."

Here, in language that can be read and understood by high school students, is a concise but extremely adequate description of the European crisis out of which the Marshall Plan developed, of the way in which an idea—the idea of General George C. Marshall, then Secretary of State—developed into a plan, of the spirit of democracy which animated the leaders of the program and permeated the entire administrative structure. Rarely, if ever, has a complicated scheme of international finance and reconstruction been described in language that is easily understood; such a task, however, has been achieved by Dr. Todd and the E.C.A.

people who helped in the preparation of this booklet. The explanation of the organization and administration of this gigantic project is buttressed by the inclusion of several case studies of the plan in operation, such as the story of M. Albert Jolivet who needed a tractor for his 90-acre French farm.

The descriptions of the Counterpart Fund and of the Technical Assistance Program will, it is safe to assume, make these aspects of E.C.A. understandable, for the first time, to many social studies teachers. They will prove equally effective when given to good high school students. That these descriptions may not be understood by the slower students is not a reflection on the quality of the authorship, but merely an indication of the complexity of the subject matter.

The chapter on the problem of international trade is especially valuable. Every teacher of history, modern problems, civics or economics should read this section; many of them will wish to use it with their classes. Again, this writer considers it admirable that much of this material is worth using at the college level as well as in the secondary school. Here, for instance, is a discussion of the "dollar gap" and of the export-import problems faced by both Americans and Europeans.

The appraisals of the Marshall Plan program at the half-way mark, and the sections that discuss the opinions held by both Americans and Europeans regarding the program, are useful aids to classroom discussion. The final section that discusses the relation of the Marshall Plan to our foreign policy, may well be a valuable teaching aid for many years to come.

The photographs, charts and pictorial graphs with which the booklet is generously illustrated, are also important teaching aids. Take, for instance, the pictorial graph on page twenty-three. Here, in an easily readable and understandable form, is a presentation of what the export trade means to American agriculture. It depicts the percentage of wheat, dried fruits, rice, cotton, lard, tobacco leaf, cheese, evaporated milk, oranges, grapefruit and canned fruits that was produced for the export trade in the year 1948. Or, again, the graph on the preceding page shows the job distribution of the 2,364,000 American workers whose em-

ployment is dependent upon the export trade. These, and many of the other illustrations, are teaching tools of great usefulness.

The study guide opens with an explanation of an excellent way to initiate a discussion of the Marshall Plan. It is suggested that a discussion group—either classroom or adult—might find it advantageous to conduct a public opinion poll of a class, a school, a community or a section of a community. The formulation of a few direct questions that seek to ascertain either the amount of knowledge concerning the Marshall Plan or the attitude of those questioned toward the Marshall Plan, might thus be the springboard to a meaningful and vital discussion of the entire problem. It is suggested that "How to Take a Survey of Public Opinion," by Richard W. Burkhardt and Michael O. Sawyer (National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.; 10 cents) would be of help in this connection. Mention is also made of the large number of Marshall Plan posters that can be obtained, free of charge, by writing to the E.C.A. Office of Information, noted above.

The bulk of this study guide is divided into two parts. Each of these two parts, in turn, is broken down into the eight topics discussed in the separate chapters or sections of the content material. The first part of the study guide contains two sets of questions for each chapter: the first set is made up of factual questions, the answers to which are found in the text; the second set are questions for discussion. Part two of the study guide contains, for each of the eight chapters, a list of films, another of filmstrips, and a brief list of suggested readings.

FROM THE BOUND FILES

"School administrators must realize that history must be taught by some one other than the athletic director."—Comment during a discussion on the proposals of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship (Hist. Outlook, Feb., 1920)

"The United States is the only major nation in the modern world whose history has been written exclusively by its nationals. This tends to explain many of the defects of American historiography . . ."—James C. Malin (Hist. Outlook, Jan., 1928)

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

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The following editorial appeared in one of our large metropolitan newspapers:¹

IS HIGH SCHOOL NECESSARY?

Those who doubt the value of education for everybody will find arguments in the result of an experiment conducted by the School of General Studies, at Columbia University. Last fall, 51 men and women who had never graduated from high school were enrolled for a "trial year" of studies, to be followed by a regular college course for those who could qualify. Most of the students were middle-aged or older.

The lack of a high school diploma seems to have done none of them any harm. All got good grades in the trial course; 24 have already been accepted as candidates for a college degree, and 17 more will qualify next February. Ten have dropped out for various reasons.

In their regular occupations and employments the group is varied, including an electrician, a busboy, a housewife and a machine designer. It may be assumed, however, that they were all anxious to learn and willing to study when they signed up, as many high school students are not.

Educators are interested in this experiment because it implies that college entrance requirements may need revision. Others may conclude that a lot of time is wasted in high school and that the school of experience may be a satisfactory substitute for the classroom and textbook.

Two of the students, as reported several days before in the same paper, achieved ratings of A—. One, a 48-year-old advertising executive finished 10½ grades and the other, a 36 year old secretary, had spent only one year in high school. What are the implications?

The very title of the editorial suggests perhaps the most important one: Is high school necessary? The others, growing out of it, have to do with revision of college entrance re-

quirements and high school courses of study. The editor's point that some people might feel that "a lot of time is wasted in high school" is both a natural and challenging conclusion.

There are undoubtedly many educators who agree with the implied conclusion. The very fact that Columbia University initiated the reported experiment is evidence of this. However, the conclusion can be supported, in part at least, only if the question reads: Is high school education necessary for success in college? The worthwhileness of a high school education for life in general, whether or not one goes to college, is another matter. Here, perhaps, is the crux of the whole problem—the role of the high school in our present age.

American public education has been subjected to a great deal of criticism probably ever since its inception. Of course, everything in the United States has the critical spot light focused on it from time to time. We are, in this country, a people who thrive on surveys, investigations, public hearings and frequently on white-washes of the same. It is natural, therefore, that the schools, being state supported, be subject perhaps a little bit more to the scrutiny of the public or anyone who wishes to regard himself as its representative. In the main, though perhaps at times irritating to the peace of mind, public scrutiny serves the purpose of self evaluation, experimentation, and we hope, ultimate improvement of the services rendered.

It is not so long ago that quite a furor, for example, had been aroused by the *New York Times'* publication of the results of American History tests given to college freshmen. Newspaper editorials, columnists and radio commentators, speaking for the people, wondered whether high schools were accomplishing the aims for which public tax money was being expended.

Educators want to make education a science, but the public refuses to let them do so. Every-

one, from the mailman, policeman, street cleaner, factory worker and bank clerk, to the business executive and the editorial writer, has his own theories of what the schools ought to teach. Students too feel strongly about what the schools do or should do. Finally, there are the educators themselves—teachers, supervisors and administrators and college professors who frequently disagree among themselves regarding what is best. Again, this state of affairs is a strengthening rather than a debilitating force in American education.

Some of the criticism that comes from the public press, may seem to some educators picayunish, as for example, the following news item:

HERE'S A TIP FOR TEACHERS:

WHY USE SUCH BIG WORDS?

Why doesn't the pedagogue (teacher to most of us) talk like other people!

Their pedantic double talk is erecting an iron curtain of words between them and their patrons, the public.

And that is not the complaint of citizen critics alone—there are a lot of teachers, themselves, who are warning their fellow teachers that they use too many big words when simpler words would be better.

The art of arts is simplicity.

Why will a teacher or principal talk about the "fenestration" in her room and get the parent-teacher association all excited that some new plague threatens their children, when all she means is the window arrangement?

Then there is that awe-inspiring term "core curriculum" that teachers roll around on their tongues, when all they are talking about is the three R's and simple subjects.

"Child-centered curriculum" is another favorite phrase in the barrage of words. "Curriculum," after all, takes more breath to say and more space to write than the simple "studies" or "subjects." And a "child-centered curriculum" merely means those subjects that are suited to Johnny's abilities and age.

When an advertiser wants to sell something he says "it beats, it sweeps, as it cleans" or "it satisfies that thirst" or "it saves work for mother"—no rushing to a

dictionary to understand what he is trying to tell you.

Perhaps it all started with the doctors who have a special language all their own in which they write their prescriptions so that good paying patients don't use baking soda instead of coming back to the office for sodium bicarbonate at three dollars a visit every time they have a stomach ache.

As stated in the news item there are many teachers who feel considerably piqued at what seems to them a barrage of ever-changing educational phraseology. We cannot altogether agree with that point of view. The use of the term "fenestration" for window arrangement is of course pedantic, but it is limited to a certain type of personality, present not only in the teaching profession. Affectation is an idiosyncrasy common to many people, regardless of their calling. The use of such terms as "core curriculum" and "child centered school" are not however, examples of pedantry. Each of these phrases and others found in educational literature, represent condensations or crystallizations of serious thinking. They are, in a sense, labels for systems of ideas. Teachers may now jest about the expression; "We teach children not subject matter," because the philosophy behind it has largely been accepted (although not always practiced) and because the expression has perhaps been over-used. Here, incidentally, is another reason for the coinage of new words and expressions. Excessive use, or misuse, like the one cited above, robs a phrase like "core curriculum" of its original meaning. It becomes, therefore, imperative for new expressions to be coined.

Be that as it may, those of us who are in public education (and college and university education belong in this category) must learn to accept and utilize whatever criticism is launched against us. The question raised at the beginning, concerning the worthwhileness of a high school education is of direct concern to every teacher. What we teach or do not teach in social studies is especially subject to public scrutiny in times like the present, when conflicting ideologies are so highly charged emotionally. However, our concern as teachers of social studies with what and how we teach goes beyond the mere meeting of public criticism.

If a high school education is to serve the purpose for which public monies are expended, we must first make clear to ourselves what this purpose is. For a good many years now we have come to accept that for a large number of students, high schools should not be college preparatory. Now, this experiment at Columbia raises the question as to whether the traditional college preparatory high school course is even necessary for entrance into college. If the implications that seem evident are correct, it seems that we must look upon high school education as being: first, a phase of life for the adolescent; and second, as a preparation for adult life. There are more and more people who feel that regardless of whether a boy or girl plans to go to college, his training during his pre-adolescent as well as his adolescent years should be concerned with living, which basically involves interaction with other people and participation in various kinds of group life. Of course, many teachers feel, and rightly so, that if their students are planning to go to college, they must be prepared for the various types of college entrance examinations, which means emphasis on subject matter rather than on the individual. It is in this connection that the Columbia experiment, though still not conclusive, rightly poses the question (as raised in the editorial) whether colleges should not begin seriously to reconsider revision of entrance requirements and high schools curricular offerings.

If, let us presume, colleges were to discard all entrance requirements, except that of a well constructed aptitude test, how might the teaching of traditional subjects be affected? If the high school were to be purely an institution to be devoted to training for effective living (personally and socially gratifying), what might be our curricular offerings in social studies? And in the other studies? How might the length of the school day and "extra-curricular" activities be modified?

Not infrequently writers cite the practices of non-literate or primitive peoples as examples of ways of life that are considered superior to ours, in spite of our more advanced civilization. Margaret Meade's *Male and Female*, for instance, as well as the studies of other cultural anthropologists, has directed our thinking to the possibility that perhaps in the sex

training of young people, non-literate peoples have certain advantages. Certainly the Kinsey report and the clinical findings of psychiatrists and psychoanalysts further point to practices in our civilization that do not lead to full mental health. We are slowly beginning to recognize certain weaknesses in this large area of human relations. May we not look also at the educational practices of non-literate peoples for clues to other mistakes we may be committing?

For a variety of reasons, perhaps most of them economically determined, Western and particularly American civilization is characterized by a prolonging of childhood, up to eighteen years of age if a boy or girl attends high school, up to twenty-two if he or she goes to college, and up to twenty-five or twenty-six, if he or she attends professional school. Our psychological literature is full of terms having to do with emotional immaturity, the mature mind, overdependency, overprotection and "momism" which implies overprotection. One writer defines neuroses, for example, as a "failure in adaptation in which the personality partially relinquishes mature reactions and regresses to childish ones, or fails to outgrow childish reactions upon reaching physical maturity."² Is it possible that our educational system promotes immaturity? The editorial cited above raises the questions whether a lot of time is not wasted in high school and whether the school of experience may not be a satisfactory substitute for the classroom and textbook.

Many educators, we know have been pleasantly surprised at the way G.I.'s attending college have responded to their studies. It seems that experience out in the world, more than just increased chronological age, has had a maturing effect. It has been noted by teachers of vocational schools that the students, many of whom have part time jobs after school, on the whole look and behave in a manner that is socially more mature and less childish than do their brothers and sisters taking college preparatory courses. This is not an evaluation in intelligence or ability. It is just that many of the youngsters who work after school or during the summer seem less immature.

What is the situation among non-literate

peoples? They have no formal educational system like ours, but their children and youth are educated or trained to enter into adulthood. In a large measure this training consists of boys and girls actually doing, to a lesser degree, what adults do. Girls help their mothers with the chores peculiar to women, and boys help the menfolk in the duties that are peculiar to them. There is no complete separation of youth from the realities of life.

Ours, of course, is an economic and social system that makes it difficult for children to participate in adult activities except, in some measure, in rural and farming areas. It is

rather difficult (and also illegal) for children under sixteen to eighteen to accompany their mothers and fathers who work in offices and factories. The problem, therefore, is: can and should the high schools concentrate less on college entrance examinations and more on aiding young people to mature into adults, even though their period of childhood is being increasingly lengthened? Can we introduce in our schools the sobering experiences that one obtains from the school of life?

¹ *The Evening Bulletin*, Philadelphia, July 28, 1951.

² Saul, Leon J., *Emotional Maturity*, J. P. Lippincott, 1947.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

Facsimile of the Declaration of Independence.

—An exact facsimile of the parchment document which means so much to every American—The Declaration of Independence. Measuring approximately 29 by 34 inches, and containing the original text and signatures, this excellent reproduction is especially suitable for mounting and framing, and will be a welcome addition to any home, library or schoolroom. Write to Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D. C. for Catalog No. 1,16.2:D35.

FILMS

Eskimo Hunters. 20 minutes. Sale or rent. United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., N. Y. 29, N. Y.

Film tells how people exist in northern Alaskan regions.

Life in Lapland. 16 minutes. Sale or rent. Nu-Art Films, Inc., 145 W. 45 St., N. Y. 19, N. Y.

Life of the Lapps mainly during the winter—their customs, schools, and meager existence is depicted.

Wind from the West. 18 minutes. Sale or rent. Films of the Nations, Inc., 55 W. 45 St., N. Y. 19, N. Y.

Film about the land of the Lapps.

Age of Discovery. 10 minutes. Black and white, color. Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Ill.

Shows Spanish and Portuguese explorations through areas of the New World.

Life of a Nomad People. 10 minutes. Black and white, color. Coronet.

Study of life among the Arabs of the Sahara Desert.

The President's Cabinet. 10 minutes. Black and white, color. Coronet.

Explains significance of the Cabinet; traces its origin and growth.

English Influence in the United States. 10 minutes. Black and white, color. Coronet.

Shows how England has influenced our government and culture.

The Italian Peninsula. 10 minutes. Black and white, color. Coronet.

Depicts the historic remains and present-day life in Italy.

Our Basic Civil Rights. 14 minutes. Black and white. Coronet.

An exposition of the rights which are ours, how we got them, and the responsibilities which accompany them.

The History of Writing. 25 minutes. Black and white. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Traces man's ability to communicate from its origin in pictures and signs to its present day development.

The Story of Printing. 40 minutes. Black and

white. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Shows the development of writing from the early Babylonian forms to Chinese and Japanese forms. Also compares early and modern printing presses.

Yours is the Land. 20 minutes. Color. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc.

Reveals the important facts about erosion, loss of forests, and other resources.

Cattle Drive. 10 minutes. Color. E.B.F.

Shows the work of the cowboys as they round up the cattle for the annual drive from ranch to railroad. Realistic picture of one of the exciting phases of American life.

Daniel Boone. 20 minutes. Black and white. E.B.F.

Portrays Boone's youth in North Carolina and Pennsylvania; traces his activity in the French and Indian War; and describes his pioneering adventures in exploring and settling Kentucky.

John C. Fremont. 20 minutes. Black and white. E.B.F.

Begins with Fremont's work as an explorer and map-maker in the Mississippi Valley and the West. It calls attention to his association with Kit Carson, his part in the Mexican War and Civil War, his part in the political life of the country.

La Salle. 20 minutes. Black and white. E.B.F.

Traces LaSalle's association with Frontenac, his relations with the Indians, and his passage down the Mississippi.

Lewis and Clark. 20 minutes. Black and white. E.B.F.

The story of the exploration of the land included in the Louisiana Purchase.

The Federal Reserve System. 20 minutes. Black and white. E.B.F.

Shows the conditions which gave rise to the system and explains how the system has helped to bring stability to the nation's economy and banking structure.

Guardians of Our Country's Health. 16 minutes. Color. Frith Films, 1816 No. Highland Ave., Hollywood, California.

U. S. Public Health doctors and quarantine inspectors carefully supervise all people entering from foreign countries to prevent diseases being brought into the U. S.

The U. S. Customs Safeguard Our Foreign Trade. 16 minutes. Color. Frith Films.

Shows the work of U. S. Customs Inspectors at our border stations, harbors, and airports of entry.

Maps and Their Meanings. 10 minutes. Color. Academy Films, P.O. Box 3083, Hollywood, California

Tells how to read and interpret physical maps.

Nile River Basin and the People of the Upper River. 10 minutes. Color. Academy Films.

Gives a picture of the historical and geographical as well as social significance of the Upper Nile.

Goddess of Merchants. 21 minutes. Black and white. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Gives a comprehensive coverage of the history of British Wool trade from medieval times to the present day.

This is Britain. Series of 115 short sound films, each from 3 to 5 minutes in length. Black and white. Free. B.I.S.

Available free of charge is a classified list of such headings as "Food," "Food and Agriculture," "Health and Medicine," "Industry," "Inventions," "Ships and the Sea."

The People Next Door. 16 minutes. Rental. Black and white. B.I.S.

Shows how travel promotes good will on the Continent and in the British Isles.

Brotherhood of Man. 10 minutes. Color. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith, 212 Fifth Ave., New York 12, N. Y.

Presents a cartoon approach to the scientific facts which prove that men are essentially alike.

The House I Live In. 16 minutes. Rental. Anti-Defamation League.

A group of boys who are picking on one of their classmates because of his religion are given a lesson in tolerance by Frank Sinatra.

Bill of Rights. YT-401. Technicolor. 2 reels. Association Films, 35 W. 45 St., New York, N. Y.

Presents the story of the Bill of Rights from the Fairfax Resolves to its incorporation into the Constitution.

The Declaration of Independence. YT-400. Technicolor. 2 reels. Association Films.

Shows the events that led to the signing of this mighty document.

Give Me Liberty. YT-402. Technicolor. 2 reels. Association Films.

Gives a moving account of the fiery patriot from Virginia, featuring the "Give me liberty" speech in full detail.

Venezuela Moves Ahead. 36 minutes. Sale.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Gives an economic, historical, and geographic analysis, with special emphasis on oil industry and Caracas.

Venezuela. 10 minutes. Sale. United World Films, Inc.

Takes you on a trip through the Andes Mountains, with a salute to Simon Bolivar the "father of Pan-Americanism."

Colombia and Venezuela. 11 minutes. Sale or rent. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois.

Deals with human and economic geography, topography and climate.

A Day of Thanksgiving. 1 1/4 reels. Sound. Young America Films, Inc. 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, N. Y.

This film is the dramatic story of Bill Johnston and his family, typical Americans, who used a Thanksgiving Day as the opportunity to recount the many freedoms and privileges they enjoyed as American citizens.

French Influences in North America. 1 reel. Sound. Color. Sale or rent. Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Illinois.

Takes the students from the Gulf of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mississippi, and shows the great French Empire in North America.

Our Inheritance from the Past. 1 reel, Sound. Color. Sale or rent. Coronet Films.

In the film, any of our modern machines and ways of living are shown, and their development is traced back to ancient and medieval civilization on all parts of the globe.

This Is Recovery. 8 minutes. Black and white. A. F. Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

An informative background film on the history, mechanics and purposes of the Marshall Plan, explaining in some detail the precise operation of counterpart funds.

Let's Be Childish. 20 minutes. Color, Sound. A. F. Films.

In this charming film, set against backgrounds of the glorious ice-capped French Alps, the children of all the countries of

Europe teach a lesson in international co-operation that adults might well profit by. Working together to build a snow city, they win a prize more valuable to them than anything they might have gotten through individual enterprise.

FILMSTRIPS

Making the Union Click. 31 frames. Sound. Workers Education Bureau, AFL, 1440 Broadway, New York 18, N. Y.

Shows the importance of member's support in union programs.

George Washington Carver. 72 frames. Color. Artisan Productions, P.O. Box 1827, Hollywood, California.

Tells the story of the selfless devotion of a man of science who converted the common peanut into scores of useful new products.

Britain 1900-1950. 29 frames, Black and white. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Depicts the history of Great Britain in the last 50 years, covering the growth of industries, colonial changes, and Britain in two wars.

Cadillac's Village. 38 frames. Black and white. Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Wayne University, Detroit 1, Mich.

Re-enacts the founding of Detroit and its development to 1760.

Life in Ancient Rome. 36 frames. Color. Black and white. Wayne University.

Re-creates the life of the Romans at the height of the Empire's power.

Machine Power Means Plenty. 60 frames. Color. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Tells the story of Al Franklin, whose grandfather used a pick and shovel, while Al today operates a power shovel.

There Shall Be Peace. 60 frames. Free. Dept. of Public Information, The United Nations, N. Y.

Contrasts an imaginary dream of an armament race on the moon with the actual work of the U. N. in striving for a peaceful world.

Venezuela. 60 frames. South America Series, Stillfilm, Inc., 171 So. Los Robles, Pasadena 5, California.

Reveals La Guaira, Caracas, public markets, delivery methods, plaza, custom house, wharves.

South America and its Problems. 60 frames. Sale. Black and white. Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Here we can see the life of a people on the plains, the diamond mines, natives dwellings, etc.

American Religious Holidays. 45 frames. Sale. Anti-Defamation League, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Shows religious festivals and holy days of the three major faiths in America.

Better World Neighbors. 50 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, 25 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.

Reveals the work of UNESCO, and how each of us can help.

Democratic Living. 18 frames. Color. Sale. Johnson Hunt Productions, 1133 No. Highland Ave., Hollywood 38, California.

Portrays the principles of fair play, cooperation, and personality development in the country we love.

Design for World Living. 50 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad St., New York, N. Y.

Shows how the U. N. works for better world living conditions and the work done by its commissions on health, crime, and economics.

Early Americans. 49 frames. Sale. Film Publishers.

Tells about the Indians, Hispanos, and Mexicans and their way of life, as well as place in American life.

Free to be Different. 60 frames. Sale. National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

The various racial and religious groups in the U. S., their contributions and problems are discussed

How to be Happy and Free. 60 frames. Sale. National Conference of Christians and Jews.

Shows the materials and methods for eliminating discrimination and intolerance in local communities.

None So Blind. 55 frames. Sale. Anti-Defamation League.

A cartoon which explains why we are prejudiced and the effects of discrimination upon ourselves and society.

Spiral of Social Change. 45 frames. Sale. Film Publishers.

Depicts the opportunities offered to minority groups and the effect upon their place in society.

We Are All Brothers. 54 frames. Sale. Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38 St., New York, N. Y.

Explodes the theory of the supremacy of one race or nationality. Gives scientific data.

RECORDINGS

"We Hold These Truths." 33 1/3 r.p.m. Loan. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

A one hour broadcast dramatizing the fundamental truths contained in the Bill of Rights.

"Lest We Forget Series." 33 1/3 r.p.m. Anti-Defamation League.

a) "These Great Americans." 13 records telling the story of outstanding Americans who dedicated their lives to the principle that all men are created equal.

b) "The American Dream." 13 true-life stories about everyday people who help us to live better even though their jobs are routine and humble.

"You Are There." Long Playing Record MC 4149, or 78 r.p.m., sets MM-822 and MM-823, Columbia Records, 779 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.

a) "The Battle of Gettysburg, July 3, 1863."
b) "The Signing of Magna Charta, June 19, 1215."

Hear history vividly re-enacted and reported as though today's top reporters were right on the scene.

"Voices of Freedom." 33 1/3 r.p.m. Educational Services, 1702 K St., Washington, D. C.

All the voices, like Bryan, Edison, Roosevelt, Earhart, Taft, Peary, Wilson, Rogers, etc., are authentic. These are the voices of people who are in history books.

RADIO

Invitation To Learning. WCBS, each Sunday, 11:35 A.M.-12 M.

Review of interesting discussions on books, people, morals, etc.

People's Platform. WCBS, each Sunday, 12:00-12:30 P.M.

Discussion on highlights of the week . . . current problems.

The Eternal Light. WNBC, each Sunday, 12:30 P.M.-1 P.M.

A fine program along religious and ethical lines.

American Forum. WNBC, each Sunday, 1:30 P.M.-2 P.M.

Discussions of domestic problems

TELEVISION

Channel 4, Sunday at 1:30-2 P.M. . . . *American Forum* depicts discussions of important current topics by prominent Americans.

Channel 4, Sunday at 2 P.M. . . . *Watch the World*, with J. C. Swayze as narrator, scenes and facts about countries and people.

Channel 2, Sunday at 5:30 P.M. . . . *People's Platform* presents a discussion by prominent people, senators, congressmen, etc. about highly interesting national problems.

Channel 7, Sunday at 9 P.M. . . . *Crusade in Europe*, a film which deals with the work of Gen. Eisenhower during World War II.

Channel 7, Sunday at 9:30 P.M. . . . *The Marshall Plan*, a film which depicts the work of the Americans in provid-

ing assistance to European countries under the Marshall Plan.

PICTURES (facsimiles)

The following facsimiles are photographic reproductions. These may be ordered from the National Archives, Room 100, Washington, D. C. Money orders should be made payable to the Treasurer of the U. S.

1. *Revolutionary War Recruiting Broadside, 1776.*
(11" x 14") 20 cents.
2. *Photograph of Robert E. Lee, 1865, by Matthew Brady.*
(8" x 10") 20 cents.
3. *Letter Signed By Dolly Madison Agreeing To Attend Washington Monument Ceremonies, 1848.*
(8" x 10") 20 cents.
4. *History of The Washington Monument to 1849.*
(11" x 14") 20 cents.
5. *Broadside Soliciting Funds For Completion of the Washington Monument, 1860.*
(11" x 14") 20 cents.
6. *Certificate of Membership In The Washington National Monument Society, signed by President Zachary Taylor.*
(10" x 18") 20 cents.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pa.

Respect for Public Property

Vandalism in our National Parks is a public scandal. Many parks are littered with discarded pop bottles and chewing gum wrappers. Binoculars, in spite of being firmly bolted down, have been carried off and flowers have been picked unlawfully. In some places the water supply has been contaminated. All this indicates the urgent need for educating not only the visitors to the parks but all American citizens, especially the young ones.

In an illustrated article in the June, 1951, *Survey*, Annette H. Richards presents the problem and suggests its remedy. She points

out that the abuse of property costs the taxpayer money and causes subsequent visitors personal inconvenience, discomfort and even danger.

She recommends that each visitor to a park be responsible for his own behavior, and also keep an eye on others. Persons seen misusing the park's facilities should be reminded to desist. If the culprit persists, it is the duty of the observer to call a ranger. Young people should be taught a proper respect for the parks and for public property.

Miss Richards dramatically concludes her plea with a forest fire slogan:

"This is God's country—don't leave it looking like hell."

Local History

Detroit's two hundred and fiftieth Birthday Festival and the New Castle Tercentenary are two of the anniversaries featured in the Summer 1951 issue of *American Heritage*. To the latter are devoted nine features and eight pages in full color. The accounts of both celebrations are generously illustrated in black and white and also in lovely kodachromes. *American Heritage* presents a variety of content, its articles ranging from concern with festivals, the Conestoga wagon, and General Washington's sewing circles to an historical study of our nation's foundations. (The term "foundation" in this title refers to ladies' girdles worn in every age since early Egypt.)

The content of these articles, based upon scholarly research, is presented in a popular and most engaging style. The illustrations are arresting, aesthetic and educationally sound.

It is a pity that so excellent a magazine should have permitted the inclusion of material offensive to any religious group. In justice to the editor, however, it must be emphatically stated that he did print on the first inside page letters protesting the publication of the unfortunate material.

Pride in local history goes hand in hand with a concern for solving current problems in Litchfield, Connecticut. In mid-July this town held its fourth annual open house to aid the Connecticut Junior Republic, a school which gives the pupils vocational, academic and character training, with practical experience in democracy and self-government. For this benefit, Litchfield opened to the public twelve of its Colonial homes. Some of the more notable included one built in 1736, believed to be the birthplace of General Ethan Allen, head of the "Green Mountain Boys," which has three original fireplaces and paneled walls joined by wooden pegs.

Built in characteristic New England style of white clapboards and green shutters, the Tapping Reeve House was erected in 1774. The restored building, constructed by Judge Tapping Reeve, was the first law school in the country, numbering Aaron Burr as one of its students. The Tallmadge House, constructed

as a tavern, was built in 1775 and purchased seven years later as a home by Col. Benjamin Tallmadge. Another tavern, the Elisha Sheldon Tavern, was built in 1760. An excellent example of colonial religious edifice is the Congregational church, constructed in 1829 and located at one end of the village green.

Other Litchfield colonial houses exhibited annually and built between 1783 and 1832 were the Lynde Lord House, the Miles Beach House, the Dr. Alanson Abbey House and the house owned by Mrs. Frothingham Wagstaff.

Still another residence was included in the benefit. It is the house of Mr. and Mrs. Winthrop H. Smith in Norris, Conn. and is said to have been built by Joseph Byrd before 1745. This year it was opened to the public for the first time.

Rural Doctor Shortage

According to the American Medical Association (John W. Cline, M.D.: "The Stature of American Medicine 1951. President's address." *The Journal A.M.A.*, Vol. 146, No. 7, June 16, 1951) the problem of the rural doctor shortage is one of distribution rather than of actual shortage. The American Medical Association favors the training of more physicians and the bringing together of communities seeking doctors with doctors looking for places to practice.

On the other hand Paul de Kruif in the *Reader's Digest* of June 1951 calls talk about the doctor shortage "incessant propaganda for socialized medicine, emanating in great part from the Federal Security Agency in Washington, which has spread a false idea of the state of medical care in the United States."

However, Mr. de Kruif does relate tales of communal self help where doctors were needed. For example, a community in Bat Cave built a twelve-bed, modern hospital by contributing lumber, hardware and labor. Another place, Merrilan, Wisconsin, raised money for a doctor's home and clinic, bought an auto and put money in a bank subject to check till a practice would make expenses. Sixty-seven rural settlements in Kansas obtained doctors who were attracted by their offers of free offices and clinics.

Another means of encouraging physicians to locate in rural areas is the Mississippi plan

of offering its college boys \$5,000 medical scholarships to go to any medical school on condition that they will practice in a rural area not having a doctor for five years after their internships.

Still another technique to channel medical care to rural areas is the Illinois plan. The Illinois State Medical Society and the Illinois Agricultural Association have formed a \$100,000 medical scholarship fund. Farmer-doctor committees select promising boys from communities needing a physician. The boys are granted scholarships and upon completion of their studies they are supposed to return to their home communities to practice. All these plans are cited by de Kruif to prove that Federal aid and control of medicine are unnecessary.

The distribution of physicians in rural areas was the problem of particular consideration by the Minnesota State Medical Association during its ninety-eighth Annual Meeting in Rochester. The Association recognized that the doctor attempting to practice in a small rural community is faced with great difficulty in obtaining a reasonable income.

Various methods have been tried to solve the problem in the United States. One way is the granting of subsidies by a local community or by state welfare agencies. On the whole, however, the method has not been effective. Another approach planned is the eventual construction of health centers with laboratory and roentgen ray facilities. However, their construction is dishearteningly slow.

The Minnesota State Medical Association proposes to use the Mississippi plan of free medical tuition to boys who upon their attaining their M.D. and completing their internships, promise to practice in a rural area for five years. The Commonwealth Fund attempted to solve the same problem in a similar fashion. However, actual experience shows that the boys, having had a taste of city life, prefer to reimburse their benefactors and then stay in the city. The Minnesota State Medical Society tried still another approach toward solving the rural doctor shortage problem. The Society is attempting to obtain qualified, displaced physicians and to place them in the rural areas.

A sociologist's study of the same problem was made by Milton I. Roemer and published in

the June, 1951, issue of *Rural Sociology*. It is called "Approaches to the Rural Doctor Shortage (with special reference to the South)."

Dr. Roemer recognizes that the doctor requires a decent income. He reviews the corrective methods employed to attract physicians to rural areas—the direct local governmental subsidies to doctors settling in rural communities, the rent-free houses, the gift of an automobile, rural medical fellowships, strengthening of medical schools in rural areas and several wartime measures such as Public Law 16 enacted in 1943 by Congress to pay transportation expenses and \$250 a month for the first three months in practice to doctors who would move into a community needing one. Immediately after World War II surplus property was disposed of by giving rural hospitals expensive medical equipment at low cost and physicians office equipment provided they would choose a rural location.

The most effective remedies for the maldistribution of physicians are the construction of medical facilities in rural areas and the organization of prepayment plans for medical care.

Migratory Labor

Migratory farm labor employed in the United States includes Mexican wet-backs, Mexicans legally recruited, and native migratory agricultural laborers.

The Mexican wet-backs are Mexican agricultural laborers who swim the Rio Grande to evade United States immigration officers. They cross the border in order to obtain jobs harvesting crops in the western, and midwestern parts of the United States.

Wet-backs already in the United States had their status legalized in 1949. This means that an agreement had been made between Mexico and the United States, by which Mexicans illegally in the country could have their status changed by being given work contracts.

"Both governments have bound themselves 'to take all measures necessary to suppress radically the illegal traffic of Mexican workers.'" (A. R. Issler: "The Latest Reports on the Joads" *The Survey*, July, 1951.)

However, this intergovernmental agreement "gives these wet-backs preferential employment over workers from Mexico who had not violated the United States Immigration laws."

Mexico canceled the migratory labor agreement with the United States on June 15, and one month later cut off the supply of contract farm workers. The reason for this is said to have been the failure of Congress to enact legislation authorizing a United States Government agency to sign the contracts for workers. These contracts are signed by private employers. The Mexican Government wanted the United States to recruit the workers and to guarantee to them transportation and payment of wages at contract rates.

In addition to these workers legalized by agreement there are an undetermined number of wet-backs whose presence in the United States is still illegal. The wet-back migration has increased and is estimated as being upward of 1,000,000 entering this country illegally each year. This group represents a health hazard to itself and to the community in which it settles.

When the wet-back enters the United States with his family, he receives no physical examination. Upon arrival, he does not try to obtain any medical attention, because of poverty and fear of apprehension. His employer is not concerned with his health. Public medical services are not available to him because of his being a transient and unable to fulfill residence requirements.

The infant mortality in his group is very high. No clean drinking water and no sanitary facilities are available to these wretched folk. Among them disease rides rampant. The statistics for the incidence among them of tuberculosis, dysentery, syphilis, malaria and typhoid fever are so high as to make one shudder. Many of these workers are fruit and berry pickers—articles of food which cannot be scrubbed. Just how clean—and in the light of this knowledge—how appetizing these fruits are is anybody's guess.

The poverty of the wet-backs condemns them to an inadequate and deficient diet. Their children drink no milk and most of the adults cannot afford to eat any meat.

Dr. Howard Rusk in his article, "Migratory Workers' Health Now a Major U.S. Problem" in the *New York Sunday Times* of June 3, 1951, emphasizes the importance of improving the health and the general living conditions of all migratory workers, both foreign and domestic.

Under the Immigration Act of February 5, 1917, temporary agricultural laborers may be legally admitted from Mexico. On May 7, 1951, the Ellender Bill was passed which authorized the Secretary of Labor to recruit Mexican agricultural workers in Mexico, transport them to recreation centers just over the border in the United States, house and feed them there at employer expense, pending arrangements for their employment. Mexico required for the Mexican farm laborers, legally admitted into the United States, minimum housing standards, medical care, accident insurance, and, in emergency, burial expenses. This bill was favored by large scale producers such as the cotton growers but opposed by the "dirt-farmers" and by labor.

The provisions of the Ellender Bill were contrary to the major recommendations of the report of the President's Commission's "Migratory Labor in American Agriculture." The President had raised the question: "whether sufficient numbers of local and migratory workers can be obtained from domestic sources to meet agricultural labor needs, and, if not, the extent to which the temporary employment of foreign workers may be required."

In order to discover the answer, Mr. Truman selected a distinguished and able group to man his Commission—the associate director of the Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin; an economist, formerly head of the National Labor Relations Board; a Roman Catholic Archbishop of the Archdiocese of San Antonio; and the chairman of the political science department of the University of California at Berkeley. The professor of law of the University of North Carolina served as chairman. The executive secretary appointed by this group was the associate agricultural economist of the College of Agriculture, University of California at Berkeley, who organized a small research staff. Cooperating with the Commission were experts from the Immigration and Naturalization Service, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, the Bureau of Labor Standards, and the U.S. Employment Service and other governmental agencies.

Public hearings and staff consultations for a ten-month period formed the basis for the following answer:

"In the present emergency first reliance should be placed upon using our domestic labor force more effectively. No special measures should be adopted to increase the number of alien contract laborers beyond the number admitted in 1950. To meet any supplemental need for agricultural labor that may develop, preference should be given to citizens of offshore possessions of the United States, such as Hawaii and Puerto Rico. Future efforts should be directed toward supplying agricultural labor needs with our own workers and eliminating dependence on foreign labor."

Adequate domestic farm labor is available provided farmers pay decent wages and offer reasonable working conditions. The President's Commission presented a number of interesting facts:

Only two per cent of the nation's farms, those of industrialized, large scale operators, use migratory labor to any extent. Migrants settle down if given a chance at decent working and living conditions. It would be desirable for our economy to help them settle in one place and let them work within a radius of one day's travel to supply man power for the farms in the vicinity.

Agricultural production in 1951 could be increased by means of better recruitment methods and by utilization of the present domestic labor force.

Shutting off the alien labor supply would contribute toward improving the working conditions of domestic migrants.

Testimony before the Commission exposed the miserable situation of the domestic migratory farm laborer and his family.

"As crops ripen, farmers anxiously await their coming; as the harvest closes, the community with equal anxiety awaits their going." Their broken-down cars are laden with beds, cooking utensils, tarpaulin, and family, as they move on from citrus fruit to potatoes, or from sugar beets to cherries. Employers' housing on the job, when considered good, usually consists of unpainted, roughly finished cabins, each equipped with bunks and a table. There probably will be no electricity, running water, flush toilets or laundry facilities. Housing at the home base

—is 'the most deplorable in the nation.' Here are the shack towns, the unincorporated slums without fire or police protection, without drainage or sanitation, with substandard houses. . . ."

The migrant usually has no vote, no legal residence, no relief rights. He has no unemployment insurance, no minimum wage, no social security. He is without recreation facilities, without care of the public health nurse or physician. His earnings are inadequate, compelling his wife and children to work too. The latter do not have the benefit of child care centers. Their education is neglected because compulsory school laws are seldom enforced.

To alleviate these wretched conditions the President asked his Commission to inquire into the responsibilities of Federal, state, county and municipal authorities "with respect to alleviating the conditions among migratory workers."

The Commission suggested that:

- (1) the President appoint a permanent Federal Committee on Migratory Labor.
- (2) the Federal Government set up minimum standards covering all types of on-the-job housing for workers moving in interstate commerce.
 - (a) these standards be administered through state licensing.
 - (b) the Department of Agriculture be empowered to extend grants-in-aid to states for labor camps where workers may rent decent cabins.
 - (c) the Public Housing Administration develop a rural non-farm program especially for this group.
 - (d) the Department of Agriculture extend modest credit to migratory farm workers wishing to settle down and build their own homes.
 - (e) the states enact housing codes with minimum building, protective, and sanitation standards for unincorporated areas.

In addition to these recommendations concerning housing, the Commission also recommended that the Federal Government "aid the states, on the basis of matching grants, to provide general assistance, adequate educational facilities, and medical care; that unemployment

insurance, minimum wage, workmen's compensation, old age and survivors' insurance be granted; that the Federal and state child labor laws be amended and enforced."

With respect to the Special Farm Labor Committee of the Farm Placement Service the Commission recommended emphasis on its function as a work-finding agency for migratory farm laborers instead of as a recruiting agency for farm employers.

The greatest drawback to better labor relations was the crew leader or labor contractor

system under which unlicensed middlemen transport, feed, house, and pay the migrants they secure for farmer-employers.

Self organization is the best method for improving the working conditions of farm workers. In accordance with this principle, the National Farm Labor Union has succeeded in winning over the management of Seabrook Farms, New Jersey. The union wants recognition as the bargaining agent of the farm workers. It wants better pay for its members and greater use of native instead of alien labor.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

And the War Came; The North and the Secession Crisis, 1860-1861. By Kenneth M. Stampp. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1950. Pp. viii, 331. \$4.50.

Dr. Stampp, author of the present volume and professor of history at the University of California, has concentrated his attention on the five-month period between the election of Lincoln and the fall of Fort Sumter. In contrast to such historians as J. G. Randall and Allan Nevins, he believes "proving or disproving that the Civil War was inevitable" is a "fruitless and impossible" task. "Instead," he writes, "I have been concerned with the problem of *why* the war came, especially why Northerners were unwilling to acquiesce in disunion. . . . Why the southern attempt to apply this solution did not produce peace between the North and South will be the major theme of this book." Professor Stampp shows a thorough familiarity with good secondary sources, but he bases his conclusions largely on such primary materials as newspaper editorials, private correspondence and Congressional records.

Using an approach that combines the topical and chronological, and usually presenting developments from the northern viewpoint, the author starts with a summary of the differences between North and South in 1860. The various reactions to the fact of secession, and the Constitutional arguments of both sides are treated in detail. An excellent characterization

of Buchanan with an analysis of his philosophy and actions, is followed by a discussion of the steps by which, to southern discomfiture and surprise, he chose the Union. After appraising the impasse which existed in December and January, Dr. Stampp analyses the insincerity and eventual failure of compromise. Chapters on the evolution of Lincoln's position and the gradual hardening of northern determination to stand by the Union are followed by an examination of Lincoln's Sumter decision and the development of northern unity in April, 1861. The author believes that:

Though it was the Sumter crisis that immediately forced Lincoln's hand, that was only a historical accident. Even if the Sumter garrison had been well supplied and entirely secure, the northern people, unwilling to tolerate further suspense, would have given the new President no respite. Neither Anderson's letter nor Yankee impatience changed the strategy that Lincoln had planned to use, but they decidedly increased the speed of its application. The time for delay had passed!

Written tightly and organized clearly and logically, this volume is very readable. The thorough research, sound documentation and critical approach all merit praise. Perhaps the highest encomium should be given this quality: without once saying 'notice the analogy between this situation and 1950,' the author has so organized his material that the reader be-

comes very conscious of the many similarities between 1860 and 1950.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State University of New York
Cortland, New York

The Structure of American Industry: Some Case Studies. Edited by Walter Adams, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. x, 588. \$4.75.

Here we are given "a kaleidoscopic view of American business enterprise."

Altogether, there are fifteen chapters. Thirteen of these deal with these subjects respectively: cotton textile, bituminous coal, agriculture, residential construction, steel, chemicals, cigarettes, motion pictures, fluid milk, tin cans, glass containers, ocean shipping, and air transport. The fourteenth chapter is entitled, "Public Policy in a Free Enterprise Economy," and the fifteenth, "Organized Labor in a Free Enterprise Economy." One chapter is written by the editor. This is the fifth, which discusses steel.

To what extremes of repression men may go under our "free" enterprise system is illustrated by an incident related in the fourteenth chapter. It seems that workers who install floor tile persuaded the State of North Carolina to permit only licensed contractors to perform this kind of labor. Their next step was to have members of their own group selected as a licensing board. Later, it was reported with pride that three examinations for licenses had been given, but that all candidates had failed. (520)

One of the authors, Dr. Corwin Edwards, considers that our business men are now unintentionally engaged in the promotion of state collectivism by demanding government aid in times of distress. In a true system of free enterprise, it is the enterprisers themselves who determine in what activities they will engage, and, at the same time they accept all risks involved in carrying on these activities. (521)

In such a system there will be losses as well as profits. Nevertheless, some business men are coming to demand that there shall always be profits. If the state is to continue to make good the losses of the enterpriser, the time will come when it will seek to control the activities of the enterpriser. (521)

This type of collectivism offers none of the alternative virtues which are claimed for the

ideological collectivist systems. It is devoid of central planning and of social purpose. If the tendency continues, it will afford us, at worst, a stultification of the constructive forces of a free enterprise economy; and, at best, merely an incentive to substitute planned and purposeful state action for that which is unplanned and purposeless. In either case, . . . free private enterprise cannot survive. (521)

This book should be read by all who wish to keep well-informed. The reader will not only be supplied with certain facts, but will also be made aware of the implications of some of our economic policies.

The Structure of American Industry will form a valuable addition to any high school or college library. For collateral reading purposes, it will prove useful in such courses as Economics, Sociology, American History, and International Relations.

At the close of each chapter, a list of suggested readings is to be found. At the end of the book, an Index of Names and a Subject Index appear.

J. F. SANTEE

University of Portland
Portland, Oregon

The Letters of Robert G. Ingersoll. Edited with a Biographical Introduction by Eva Ingersoll Wakefield. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. xii, 747. \$4.50.

In this book the editor has tried "to present an informal but revealing portrayal of the man Ingersoll—his personality, ideas, interests, life-work and influence—through the medium of some of his characteristic personal letters." A brief preface is written by David Saville Muzzey and Part I of the book contains a biographical introduction. The letters collected and published by the editor deal with Robert G. Ingersoll in Part II as the orator, lawyer, soldier, politician and statesman, in Part III as the agnostic, in Part IV as the lay critic and lover of the arts, in Part V as the epicure and bon-vivant, in Part VI as the husband, father and friend, and in Part VII as the humanist. The emphasis is placed in the volume on Parts II, IV, and VII.

The editor has pointed out that letters from Robert G. Ingersoll to his wife are omitted and

that many of those relating to his career as a lawyer are left out. The greater part of the letters published were obtained from the two daughters of Ingersoll but some of them were assembled from the files of his law office, from old admirers and friends, and other sources. The editor, however, has clearly published sufficient letters of her grandfather to indicate the versatility of the man. From this material the reader can easily find and analyze the main ideas of Ingersoll.

As the editor indicates, the book is "a biographical outline or sketch" of the man under consideration. Nevertheless a biographer of Ingersoll would find this volume of great value. The scholarship is excellent; the documentation is sound. The editor adopts a favorable attitude to the person under study but not to the point of prejudicing the book.

R. H. FIFIELD

University of Michigan
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American Government. By Frank A. Magruder. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1951. Revised Edition. Pp. xi, 786. \$2.50.

The annual edition of Magruder's *American Government*, which appears regularly on New Year's Day, has become an American institution. The 1951 edition—called *Mag '51* by the publishers, with understandable affection—has all the weaknesses and merits of the preceding editions. Although, according to the Foreword, new material appears "on more than 250 pages," the book is exactly the same length as the 1950 edition and the changes are relatively minor.

Presumably in order to avoid criticism from organizations which insist on 110% Americanism, Professor Magruder goes out of his way to gloss over many serious deficiencies in our governmental machinery and political practices, waxes absurdly sentimental at times over the virtues of the American system, and offers little but platitudes and affirmations of good intentions in foreign policy. Such statements as the following seem rather pointless and naive: "The greatest law in the world is the Golden Rule; and if a Government adopts this rule in its foreign policy most countries will respond and be neighborly." "Will any

self-respecting woman fail to use this [political] power to keep the nation's record untarnished and make its future more glorious?" It is surprising to read a chapter on "Civil Rights and Liberties" without finding any reference to the report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights and to the frequent abuses of civil rights in this country. The chapter on "The United States in World Affairs" should have been one of the most important in the volume; instead it is generally uninformative and gives a wholly inadequate treatment of the problem of United States relations with the countries and peoples of Asia.

Some of the minor changes in the 1951 edition seem to point in the wrong direction. For example, in the 1950 edition Professor Magruder suggested the desirability of a Constitutional amendment which would permit the approval of treaties by a majority of both Houses of Congress, whereas in *Mag '51* he changed this in favor of the much less popular suggestion of approval "by a simple majority of the Senate." Fortunately, however, most of the familiar Magruderisms remain, such as the description of a budget as "a method of worrying before you spend instead of afterwards."

In spite of its many shortcomings, and in spite of occasional unflattering attention from professional critics of social science textbooks, Magruder's text is a thoroughly sound one and merits its long-standing popularity. When the author prepares *Mag '52*, however, it is to be hoped that he will undertake a real revision.

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Social Disorganization. By Mabel A. Elliott and Frances E. Merrill. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Pp. 748. \$4.50.

This third edition of one of the most popular and stimulating text books in social disorganization is indeed welcome. It is well written, scholarly and well documented. This book through its two previous editions has won an enviable reputation among sociologists. The reviewer may be somewhat prejudiced as he has used it as a text for nearly twenty years and has found each new edition more efficient in every way. Disorganization is emphasized

in this book not so much as sordid social pathologies, but as failures on the part of individuals and groups to conform to the prevailing social norm. Human interest illustrations are helpful to the student. The authors do not intend this book for use of graduate students, but for the beginner. This third edition is a real revision with statistical materials brought up to date.

Students also like the way the authors have presented their materials and integrations. The only adverse criticism this reviewer wishes to make does not have to do with the content of the book, but with the publisher's effort to condense so much material onto the paper. Students and teachers will find the close print of this edition undesirable. Larger type or a wider spreading would have been much more desirable even if it had required a few extra pages.

The freshness, vitality and modern approach to the social disorganizations of today place this book on a very high level. It should be regular reading for the layman as well as the professional. It is a first rate book.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Twilight in South Africa. By Henry Gibbs. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xxx, 288. \$4.50.

A dramatic and alarming report of what is happening in South Africa now.

Economic Citizenship. By R. O. Hughes. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1950. Pp. xiii, 349 \$1.50.

Revised to meet present day needs. Outstanding text for use in an economics course.

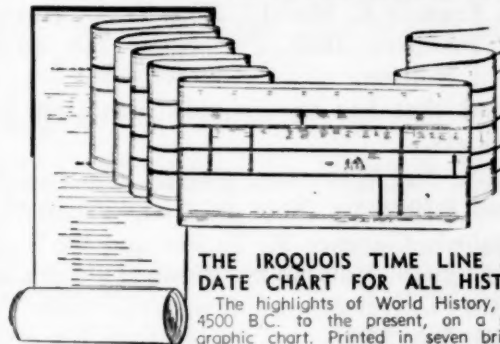
The Prodigal Century. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xx, 257. \$3.75.

A critical analysis of the Nineteenth Century.

The History of the Peloponnesian Wars. By Thucydides. Translated by Richard Cravley. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1950. Pp. xxvi, 528. \$2.50.

A splendid contribution in the field of Ancient History.

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The History of the Second World War: Problems of Social Policy. By Richard M. Titmuss. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1950. Pp. xxv, 596. \$5.75.

A study of selected subjects within the vast range of Social History of World War II.

Latin American Republics. By Dana Gardner Munro. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Incorporated, 1950. Pp. xxix, 605. \$4.50. Second Edition.

Parts of this edition have been rewritten to include new material.

Court is in Session. By Isaac D. Levy and Bernard J. Smolens. New York: Crown Publishers, 1950. Pp. xv, 241. \$2.50.

Excellent reference book for unit on Courts.

Today's Problems. By R. O. Hughes. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1950. Pp. xxiii, 802. \$2.25.

Revised edition and excellent for use in a year's course in Problems of American Democracy.

When Winds Go Wrong. By John Maurice Grimes. Chicago, Illinois: John Maurice Grimes, 1950. Pp. vi, 237. \$5.00.

Personal experience of a man who has worked in the field.

Social Disorganization. By Mabel A. Elliott and Francis E. Merrill. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xxxiv, 748. \$4.50. Third Edition.

A text that has an enviable reputation for sociologists.

Missouri. Its Resources, People and Institutions. Edited by Noel P. Gist, Thomas C. Morelock, Clarence M. Tucker and W. Francis English. Columbia, Missouri: Curators of the University of Missouri, 1950. Pp. xxviii, 605. \$5.00.

An excellent history of the State.

The Struggle for Sovereignty in England. By George L. Mosse. East Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan State College Press, 1950. Pp. viii, 191. \$2.50.

An account of the political thought from the reign of Queen Elizabeth to the Petition of Right.

Versus: Reflections of a Sociologist. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xi, 203. \$3.75.

This volume is a collection of some of the more significant of Professor Fairchild's published essays.

The Letters of Robert G. Ingersoll. Collected and Edited by Eva Ingersoll Wakefield. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. vii, 747. \$7.50.

These letters reveal the many sided personality of Robert G. Ingersoll.

An Outline of Scientific Criminology. By Nigel Morland. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. ix, 285. \$3.00.

A book filled with scientific and accurate information.

Studies in Leadership: Leadership and Democratic Action. Edited by Alvin W. Gouldner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. v, 736. \$5.00.

This volume is unique in its contribution to scientific research.

Youth Faces its Problems. By Nelson L. Bossing and Robert R. Martin. New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1950. Pp. xxxiv, 672. \$3.00.

A text that can be used in a course of Social Living.

American Government,—National, State and Local. By Claudius O. Johnson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1951. Pp. xxi, 810. \$4.25. Third edition.

Revised to meet present day conditions.

Teaching Social Studies in the High Schools. By Edgar B. Wesley. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1950. Pp. 594. \$5.00. Third Edition.

Revised with additional material added to this edition.

Measuring Educational Achievement. By William J. Micheels and M. Ray Karnes. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1950. Pp. 496. \$4.50.

Beginning teachers will welcome this text.

American Government. By Frank Abbott Magruder. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1951. Pp. xli, 786. \$2.50.

Although this text is revised annually, the 1951 edition has new material on more than 250 pages.

Introduction to Political Science. By Joseph S. Roucek, George B. De Husgar and Associates. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company, 1950. Pp. xxv, 696. \$5.00.

A college text that has given renewed thought to the problem of what the first course should embrace.

Constitutional Government and Democracy. By Carl J. Friedrich. New York: Ginn and Company, 1950. Pp. xxiii, 688. \$5.75. Revised Edition.

A scholarly book that can be considered a leader in the field.

Our Economic World. By Wallace W. Atwood and Ruth E. Pitt. New York: Ginn and Company, 1950. Pp. xxxii, 529. \$2.50.

A fascinating text that should prove helpful to pupils of secondary level.

Napoleon Bonaparte Broward, Florida's Democrat. By Samuel Proctor. Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1950. Pp. xvii, 400. \$5.00.

A story of frontier Florida.

Economics in our Democracy. By Albert H. Sayer, Charles Cogen and Sidney Nanes. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xiv, 677. \$2.50.

A textbook for pupils of 12th grade level.